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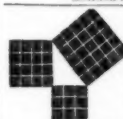
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LONDON, SATURDAY, OCTOBER 6, 1849.

## REVIEWS

*Personal Recollections of the Life and Times, with Extracts from the Correspondence, of Valentine Lord Cloncurry.* Dublin, M'Glashan.

THIS book is an agreeable addition to our stores of autobiography. Lord Cloncurry, it is true, has not much of the author's art; but he generally manages to awaken attention, and Irish politics have seldom been made more interesting to the general reader than by him. Had his skill in composition been equal to his information and to the experience which he ought by this time to have attained (for he began life as a party-pamphleteer as early as 1797), he would no doubt have given us a work of more permanent character than the one now before us.

Valentine Lawless, Lord Cloncurry, is the only person alive who has had the "honour"—shall we call it?—of being imprisoned in the Tower of London. He is in his seventy-seventh year,—has been immersed in Irish politics from the time of Lord Edward Fitzgerald to the present day,—and has lived to see many of the changes which he advocated in his youth, and for which he was prosecuted and imprisoned, adopted or now in course of adoption for the benefit of his native land. Whatever may be said of patriotism in general and of Irish patriotism in particular, there will be no doubt of the sincerity of Lord Cloncurry's convictions. Nor is honesty of purpose his only merit,—he has been consistent at the same time; and it may be said safely of him that if some of his suggestions had been carried out when first they were made, Ireland would have been a richer country than it now is and the Irish a happier people than Lord Cloncurry or his generation are likely to see them.

Lord Cloncurry's father (the first Lord Cloncurry of the Irish peerage) was, his son tells us, one of the many Irish Roman Catholics who sought in foreign countries for liberty to enjoy those privileges of property and talent which were denied them in their native land. His son inherited all—and more than all—his dislike to the English rule in Ireland; and chose for his associates Lord Edward Fitzgerald, Arthur O'Connor (who is still alive), the elder Emmett, Sampson, Curran, Grattan, and George Ponsonby. He was soon distinguished for the irreverence of his opinions:—and when he came to London for the first time in 1797 he was at once a marked man. He loved notoriety,—dressed in green (then a suspected colour),—became a member of the "United Irish Club," assisted O'Coigly in his defence,—was called before the Privy Council, and finally, on the 14th of April 1799, "on a charge of suspicion of high treason," was sent to the Tower of London, where he remained until the expiration of the Habeas Corpus Suspension Act restored him to liberty in March 1801.

Of his imprisonment his Lordship thus writes,—  
"Of the sufferings and privations I was made to endure throughout that protracted and rigid imprisonment, I will not trust myself to write at length, but allow the tale to be told in the words of letters written at the time, both by my friends and persecutors, and such brief memoranda of passing events as I find in my own contemporary communications, which have escaped destruction. The authenticity of these documents will scarcely be doubted; but I confess I could hardly hope for belief, in this age of prison humanity, were I to state from my own recollection simply, the fact, that I, an untried and innocent man, against whom, as the Castlereagh papers now conclusively prove, no criminatory evidence could be found, after the most diligent search at home and abroad,—that I, the immediate heir to a peerage, having nu-

merous and influential friends, and not unprovided with sufficient pecuniary means, could have been dragged from a sick bed, in the heart of the metropolis of British freedom, incarcerated in a filthy and loathsome cell, subjected to the continual companionship (even in my hours of sleep) of a double guard, deprived of the society of my nearest relatives, and even of the use of pen and paper, and finally dismissed from my prison, after the lapse of two-and-twenty months, without a charge made against me, or reparation offered for the monstrous insults and injuries to which I was exposed during that dreary period. In the course of those two-and-twenty tedious months I lost my father and grandfather, and the woman to whom I was upon the eve of being married with every human prospect of happiness. Her life, I have every reason to believe, fell a sacrifice to continued anxiety for my fate, in respect of which the known circumstances of my prison treatment were sufficient to justify the most gloomy forebodings. To loss of friends and health were added pecuniary losses, heavier than were perhaps ever inflicted as punishment for the gravest established political guilt. My father, fearing the consequences of a persecution so unrelenting, altered his will towards the close of his life, and left away from me a sum of between 60,000*l.* and 70,000*l.*, in order to provide against the contingency of confiscation, which it was not unreasonable to look to as a possible result of the malice of enemies who had already shown themselves so powerful for evil. If to this direct loss be added the waste and dilapidation of my estates, in consequence of the impossibility of my exercising control over my affairs, during the interval between my succession and liberation, I do not think I overrate my entire losses in money, directly consequent upon the arbitrary deprivation of my liberty, at less than 100,000*l.*"

Elsewhere he adds on the same subject:—

"Two warders (not the cleanliest of human creatures) slept nightly in my small cell, which served me for refectory and dormitory, as well as for dressing and reception rooms. At the door, night and day, stood an armed sentry, and at each relief the whole guard entered my apartment, and made themselves acquainted with my personal appearance. Companions or associates I had none. Whatever air or exercise I took was upon the leads over my prison, as the shouts of 'Bloody Irishman,' which greeted me from the mob allowed to assemble upon the parade when I was brought there for exercise in custody of my guards, obliged me to decline that indulgence. Newspapers and books were capriciously granted, or at times withheld altogether. Even a physician was not allowed to visit me, without a special warrant from his Grace of Portland. All these extremities of prison discipline, be it recollected, were applied to an untried and innocent man; while at the same time, and within the ramparts of the same fortress in which I was thus tortured, the Earl of Thanet, who had been convicted of an attempt to rescue Arthur O'Connor, and sentenced to a year's imprisonment, was suffered to enjoy all the conveniences, and luxuries, and society, which his fortune and rank enabled him to procure. I entertained no jealousy, even at the time, of the noble earl, who was a worthy, excellent man, on the score of his better treatment; but I mention the circumstance on account of the contrast it bore to my own sufferings."

Lord Cloncurry's release, or dismissal, from the Tower was communicated to him in a note from Lord Castlereagh.—

"Lord Castlereagh to Lord Cloncurry.

"Cleveland-square, 9th March, 1801.

"Lord Castlereagh presents his compliments to Lord Cloncurry, and takes the earliest opportunity of informing his Lordship, that there is no impediment whatever to his return to Ireland, whenever it may suit his Lordship to go thither."

Lord Holland in writing to Lord Cloncurry sixteen years after his release, speaks thus of this imprisonment.—

"I recollect very distinctly your imprisonment and seclusion in 1798 and 1799, and I think that a temperate and guarded account of the whole of that transaction, if you do not feel any personal

objections to reviving the subject, might make some impression on the public, because, if I am not much mistaken, your case, especially in the latter part of your imprisonment, approached more nearly to those of the *lettres de cachet* in old France than any that occurred under Pitt's suspension of the Habeas Corpus. Am I not right in thinking that whatever were the motives or the pretexts of your original arrest, your long detention was owing to private suggestions of convenience; and that during the latter period of your confinement, there was not even the affectation of suspecting you of treason, much less the profession of any intention of ever bringing you to trial?"

An imprisonment in the Tower—or indeed anywhere else in this country—on a bare and uncommunicated suspicion is not likely to occur again under even a Tory administration,—should there once more be such.—Connected with Lord Edward Fitzgerald and the Report from the Committee of Secrecy, Lord Cloncurry supplies the following amusing anecdote.—

"At the time of Lord Edward's arrest, his wife (the well-known Pamela) had taken refuge with my sisters; and was, at the time, in my father's house in Merriion Street, though without his knowledge. She was pursued there by the police in search of papers; and some which she had concealed in her bedroom were discovered and seized. Among other prizes taken, I believe, upon this occasion, was a seal, pronounced by the *quidnuncs* of the Castle to be the intended great seal of the Irish republic. In Appendix, No. 23, of the Report of the Secret Committee of the Irish House of Commons, printed in 1799, there is an engraving of the impression of this seal found in the custody of Lord Edward Fitzgerald, when he was apprehended, together with the following description: 'In a circle, Hibernia holding in her right hand an imperial crown over a shield. On her left hand is an Irish harp, over it a dagger, and at its foot lie two hogs.' It was but lately that this engraving, and its inscription, fell under my notice, when in the former, much to my surprise, I recognized an old acquaintance, the little history of which may be amusing now, when the treasonmongering mistake it discloses is no longer likely to open a path to the scaffold. The seal which the Committee of Secrecy looked upon with so much horror was a cast from an original cut for me by Strongitharm, the celebrated gem engraver, during one of my earliest visits to London. The device is a harp, from which Britannia (not Hibernia) has removed with the right hand, not an imperial but an Irish crown, and planted a dagger in its stead. Her left hand is represented as breaking the strings of the harp; at the foot of which lie, not two hogs, but two Irish wolf dogs sleeping at their post. All this is very plain to be seen, even in the vignette of the Secret Committee. Britannia is arrayed in her ordinary helmet; and her shield, bearing the cross of St. George, lies beside her; the crown in her hand is as unlike the imperial crown as can well be imagined; it is manifestly the old Irish pointed diadem. The seal itself was not designed for the broad seal of the Irish, or of any other republic; but was simply a fancy emblem which I chose to illustrate my patriotic enthusiasm; just as the oak tree, with its motto of 'Quiet good sense,' which I have already described, was selected for the device of *his* seal, by my friend John Reeves, in typification of his ultra-toryism. From the original, which is a fine cornelian, and is still in my possession, I had a few casts made in glass, by Tassie of Leicester Square—a well-known artist of the day. One of these casts, given by me to Lord Edward Fitzgerald, became renowned in story under the *imprimatur* of the Committee of Secrecy. In order to relieve poor Strongitharm's memory from the stain of having his Britannia mistaken for Hibernia, and his dogs for hogs, I have had the engraving of the Committee copied in the annexed vignette."

Lord Cloncurry immediately after his release visited the Continent; and he was presented to Napoleon at the same time with the late Lord Holland. Napoleon's notion of the state of Ireland is tinged with humour.—

"We were received in the magnificent rooms of

the Tuileries in great state; the stairs and ante-rooms being lined by men of the *corps d'élite*, in their splendid uniforms and baldricks of buff leather edged with silver. Upon our introduction refreshments were offered, and a circle was formed, as at a private *entrée*. Napoleon entered freely into conversation with Lord Holland and myself, inquiring among other matters, respecting the meaning of an Irish peerage, the peculiar character of which, and its difference from an English peerage, I had some difficulty in making him comprehend. While we were conversing, three knocks were heard at the door, and a deputation from the Conservative Senate presented itself, as if unexpectedly, and was admitted. The leader of the deputation addressed the First Consul in a set oration, tendering him the Consulate for life, to which he responded in an *extempore* speech, which, nevertheless he read from a paper concealed in the crown of his hat. Bonaparte was at that time very slight and thin in person, and, as far as I could judge, not possessed of much more information upon general subjects than of confidence in his own oratorical powers. Upon my expressing some surprise afterwards at the character of his remarks, I recollect General Lawless telling me that he and some other Irishmen (I believe Wolfe Tone was among them) had a short time before been engaged in a discussion with him respecting a project for the invasion of Ireland, when, after making many inquiries, and hearing their answers, he remarked that 'it was a pity so fine a country should be so horribly infested with wolves.' Lawless and his companions assured him that such was not the case, to which he deigned no reply but a contemptuous 'bah!'

From Paris Lord Cloncurry went to Rome; where he renewed his acquaintance with Hervey, Earl of Bristol and Bishop of Derry (the son of Pope's Lord Hervey and Pope's Molly Lepel).—

"Hervey, Earl of Bristol and Bishop of Derry, was in the habit of receiving regular remittances from home of upwards of 5,000*l.* quarterly, which he immediately expended in the purchase of every article of *virtù* that came within his reach. In this, as in most other cases, however, the proverb came true—'wilful waste made woeful want; and towards the end of the quarter, the noble prelate used to find his purse absolutely empty, and his credit so low as to be insufficient to procure him a bottle of Orvieto. Then followed a dispersion of his collection, as rapidly as it was gathered, but, as might be expected, at a heavy discount. I have seen the eccentric Earl-Bishop ride about the streets of Rome, dressed in red plush breeches and a broad-brimmed white or straw hat, and was often asked if that was the canonical costume of an Irish prelate. His irregularities were so strange, as to render any story that might be told about him credible, and, of course, to cause the invention of many, that in reference to any other person would be incredible. \* \* The bishop was taken suddenly ill, on a journey from Albano to Rome, and died in the outhouse of a cottage, to which he was carried, in consequence of the unwillingness of the peasants to admit a heretic prelate to die under their roof. I took charge of the wreck of his property at Rome, and was enabled to save it for his heirs."

Lord Cloncurry made the acquaintance of Canova at the same time.—

"I was a frequent visitor at his studio, and was often favoured with his advice when making purchases of works of Art. Canova was a thorough liberal and patriot; though his devotion to Art, and the modesty of his nature, prevented him from expressing his feelings respecting the condition of his country in any public manner. In private society, nevertheless, I had abundant opportunities of observing and admiring the workings of his grand yet simple mind; and when liberty and human progress were the subjects of his thoughts, they were not unworthy of an ancient Roman. During my residence in Rome, I was commissioned by some parties in London to engage Canova to execute a statue of Francis Duke of Bedford, for which the subscribers were willing to give a large price. He was, however, obliged to decline the engagement, saying, that if he had another lease of life, he would be unable

to execute the works he had been forced to undertake."

Another distinguished person then at Rome, and with whom Lord Cloncurry became acquainted, was a familiar figure—"the last of the Stuarts."

"Among the prominent members of Roman society in those days, was the last of the Stuarts, Cardinal York, with whom I became somewhat of a favourite, probably by virtue of addressing him as 'Majesty,' and thus going a step further than the Duke of Sussex, who was on familiar terms with him, and always applied to him the style of Royal Highness. The Cardinal was in the receipt of an income of eight or nine thousand pounds a-year, of which he received 4,000*l.* from his royal rival, George III., and the remainder from his ecclesiastical benefices. This revenue was then, in Italy, equivalent at least to 20,000*l.*; and it enabled his Eminence to assume somewhat of royal state. He was waited upon with all suitable ceremony, and his equipages were numerous and splendid, and freely placed at the disposal of his guests. He was in the habit of receiving visitors very hospitably at his villa, at Frascati, where I was often a guest, and was frequently amused by a reproduction of the scenes between Sancho Panza and his physician, during the reign of the squire in the island of Barataria. His Eminence was an invalid, and under a strict regimen; but as he still retained his tastes for savoury meats, a contest usually took place between him and his servants for the possession of rich diet, which they formally set before him, and then endeavoured to snatch away, while he, with greater eagerness, strove to seize it in its transit. Among the Cardinal's most favourite attendants, was a miserable cur dog, which, probably, having been cast off by its master, as being neither useful nor ornamental, one day attached itself to his Eminence at the gate of St. Peter's, an occurrence to which he constantly referred, as a proof of his true royal blood—the cur being, as he supposed, a King Charles' spaniel, and, therefore, endowed with an instinctive hereditary acquaintance with the house of Stuart. Upon the occasion of my visit to Frascati, I presented the Cardinal with a telescope, which he seemed to fancy, and received from him, in return, the large medal struck in honour of his accession to his unsubstantial throne."

Lord Cloncurry saw at the same time the widow of "the young Pretender."—

"While speaking of the *débris* of the house of Stuart, I may mention Louisa de Stollberg, Madame D'Albany, the widow of the Pretender, Charles Edward, and the *chère amie*, or privately-married wife of Count Alfieri, the celebrated poet. At the time of my first residence in Italy, this lady lived in Florence, where, as well as at Rome, she was one of the leaders of society. She paid me a lengthened visit in the latter city, and I was frequently a guest at her house. Upon these occasions, Alfieri was in the habit of sitting on a sofa, in a sort of state, not mingling with the company, but conversing with those who came about him, always provided there was no Frenchman among the number. For the whole French nation he entertained the most cordial hatred, and lost no opportunity of exhibiting his feelings without disguise or modification. Excepting when he was in special good humour, Alfieri's manners were savage and repulsive, forming a strong contrast to those of Madame D'Albany, who was highly informed and very agreeable. At her receptions, while Alfieri thus sat apart, in a kind of moody grandeur, she used to stand at the tea-table, with an apron over her dress, with her own hands serving tea to her guests."

A good anecdote of Madame de Staël deserves extracting.—

"From Ancona to Venice I made the journey in company with Madame de Staël, and I shall not easily forget a scene in which I witnessed her acting upon our arrival at the city of St. Mark. She made it a point never to waive any of the ceremonial which she thought properly belonged to her rank. She always took care to have the guard of authors turned out whenever she approached a position, and never failed to accept all the honours of literature. Following out her custom in this respect, she had

written to announce her approach to a poet, resident at Venice, whose name I now forget, but which happened to be identical with that of the principal butcher of the city. By some blundering of the postal authorities, Madame la Baronne's letter was delivered to Signor —, the butcher, instead of to Signor —, the poet, and the former, anxious to secure so distinguished a customer, carefully watched our arrival, and lost not a minute in paying his respects to the baroness. She, of course, was prepared to receive the homage of genius, *en cour plénière*, and we were all (including M. de Sismondi, the historian of the Italian Republics, who was in the company) convened to witness the meeting. Neither of the high saluting parties knew the power of the other, and it was some time before an explanation came about, the ridiculous character of which it is easier to conceive than to describe."

Our extracts have been all taken from the earlier pages of the volume:—by far the most readable portion of Lord Cloncurry's book. The latter part of the work is chiefly occupied by letters from Lord Anglesey and others. None of these are very interesting; excepting perhaps the following passage in a letter from Lord Melbourne written in June 1835, when he had been newly made Prime Minister.—

"I believe all you say respecting Maynooth; I have always heard the same from all persons of knowledge and information upon the subject; and yet it appears to me to be perfectly impossible, at the present time, to act upon either of your suggestions. To abolish the College altogether, without instituting any thing in its room, would be considered an insult and an injury by the whole Roman Catholic population of Ireland; and, on the other hand, the prejudices of Protestants of all descriptions—Churchman, Dissenter, and Voluntary—would oppose themselves to an augmentation of the endowment. You must be sufficiently aware of the feelings of this country to be persuaded that such a proposition would fail in parliament, and that the bringing it forward would be of the utmost prejudice to the government."

We have purposely abstained from entering into the politics of the book before us:—but will not close the volume without referring to an opinion expressed by Lord Cloncurry on the subject of Catholic Emancipation in 1829. He thinks that, had O'Connell been permitted to take his seat for Clare, and had silk gowns been given to him and to Mr. Shiel, "it is more than probable that the measure of 1829 would have been a final and a healing one, and that the strength of the Catholic agitation would thenceforward have been turned to the improvement of the institutions of Ireland."

#### *The Critical and Miscellaneous Writings of Theodore Parker. Chapman.*

THIS volume is an English reprint of articles contributed by a Massachusetts minister to the critical journals of his country—and is calculated to give readers on this side of the Atlantic a higher notion of American criticism than many are yet disposed to entertain. Not that we would willingly make ourselves responsible for Mr. Parker's demerits. We think he is often prejudiced, and sometimes unjust—especially towards England and the literature which it has produced since the separation of the two countries. But at the same time he exhibits a creditable acquaintance with the subjects on which he writes, much boldness in the discussion of theological and philosophical dogmas, and a logical quality of mind—and to these advantages he adds the command of a style which, though wanting in fluency and grace, is by no means deficient in power.

Some of the articles here reprinted appeared originally in the *Dial*; a magazine commenced, as many of our readers will remember, about nine or ten years ago, as the especial organ of Young Americanism. It had a great reputation at the time among the

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apostles and prophets of both nations—for it assigned to every man in the intellectual hierarchy some splendid "mission." In spite of many eccentricities, it gave voice and embodiment to thoughts rocking the hearts of youth, to yearnings and emotions which have found no other collective utterance. Not unremarkable were the band of writers who in vain sought a permanent public audience in its pages. Emerson, Fuller, Parker, Brownson are some of these who have since obtained a European name and reputation. Owing more inspiration to the thinkers of Germany than they were perhaps willing to allow, these men took to doing the work of the French Encyclopædists, but in a religious spirit. In the name of the saints they performed the office of iconoclasts—while preaching Christian morals, sapped the foundations of Catholic doctrines. Like Strauss, they lived and talked devoutly while devoting the historic evidence of religion to irredeemable confusion. In the history of opinion in America the ministry of the *Dial*—to borrow their own expression—made or marked an epoch. Among the papers here collected by Mr. Chapman from Theodore Parker's contributions to its pages we have:—"The Christianity of Christ, of the Church, and of Society," "German Literature," wrested philosophically, "Life of St. Bernard of Clairvaux," "Truth against the World, a Parable of St. Paul," "Thoughts on Labour," "The Transient and Permanent in Christianity," in which we find deep traces of German speculation, "Christology," and a long article on "Das Leben Jesu" of Strauss. From this paper we select a brief example of the writer's manner. He is speaking of the great vice in the method of the German critic—his assumption that ideas, concrete forms of faith, can exist prior to the facts out of which they are supposed to have grown; and he thus proceeds:—

"This method of treatment requires very little ingenuity on the part of the critic; we could resolve half of Luther's life into a series of myths, which are formed after the model of Paul's history; indeed, this has already been done. Nay, we could dissolve any given historical event in a mythical solution, and then precipitate the 'seminal ideas' in their primitive form. We also can change an historical character into a symbol of 'universal humanity.' The whole history of the United States of America, for example, we might call a tissue of mythical stories, borrowed in part from the Old Testament, in part from the Apocalypse, and in part from fancy. The British Government oppressing the Puritans is the great 'red dragon' of the Revelation, as it is shown by the national arms and by the British legend of St. George and the Dragon. The splendid career of the new people is borrowed from the persecuted woman's poetical history, her dress—'clothed with the sun.' The stars said to be in the national banner are only the crown of twelve stars on the poetic being's head; the perils of the pilgrims in the Mayflower are only the woman's flight on the wings of a great eagle. The war between the two countries is only 'the practical application' of the flood which the dragon cast out against the woman, &c. The story of the Declaration of Independence is liable to many objections, if we examine it à la mode Strauss. The congress was held at a mythical town, whose very name is suspicious,—Philadelphia,—brotherly love. The date is suspicious; it was the fourth day of the fourth month (reckoning from April, as it is probable the Hæredide and Scandinavians, possible that the aboriginal Americans, and certain that the Hebrews, did). Now four was a sacred number with the Americans; the president was chosen for four years; there were four departments of affairs; four divisions of the political powers, namely,—the people, the congress, the executive, and the judiciary, &c. Besides, which is still more incredible, three of the presidents, two of whom, it is alleged, signed the declaration, died on the fourth of July, and the two latter exactly fifty years after they had signed it, and about the same hour of the day. The year also is

suspicious; 1776 is but an ingenious combination of the sacred number, four, which is repeated three times, and then multiplied by itself to produce the date; thus,  $444 \times 4 = 1776$ , Q.E.D. Now dividing the first (444) by the second (4), we have *Unity* thrice repeated (111). This is a manifest symbol of the *national oneness* (likewise represented in the motto, *e pluribus unum*), and of the national religion, of which the Triform Monad, or 'Trinity in Unity,' and 'Unity in Trinity,' is the well-known sign!! Still farther, the declaration is metaphysical, and presupposes an acquaintance with the transcendental philosophy, on the part of the American people. Now, the 'Kritik of Pure Reason' was not published till after the declaration was made. Still farther, the Americans were never, to use the nebulous expressions of certain philosophers, an 'idealo-transcendental-and-subjective,' but an 'objective-and-concretive-practical' people, to the last degree; therefore a metaphysical document, and most of all a 'legal-congressional-metaphysical' document, is highly suspicious if found among them. Besides, Hualteperah, the great historian of Mexico, a neighbouring state, never mentions this document; and farther still, if this declaration had been made, and accepted by the whole nation, as it is pretended, then we cannot account for the fact, that the fundamental maxim of that paper, namely, the soul's equality to itself,—'all men are born free and equal'—was perpetually lost sight of, and a large portion of the people kept in slavery; still later, petitions,—supported by this fundamental article,—for the abolition of slavery were rejected by Congress with unexampled contempt, when, if the history is not mythical, slavery never had a legal existence after 1776, &c. &c."

If a man may choose his own historical method he may prove anything, as Mr. Parker shows—or disprove anything, as Archbishop Whately has done in the Essay on Napoleon. The whole of these essays will repay perusal.

*L'Acadie: or, Seven Years' Explorations in British America.* By Sir James E. Alexander. 2 vols. Colburn.

Sir James Alexander has followed the example set by the author of 'Hochelaga'—and gone to the Past for the name of the scene of his wanderings. Under the title of 'L'Acadie' the French included Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and part of Canada; and these countries continued to bear that appellation until they were ceded to England in 1763. To the title of *L'Acadie*, therefore, we will not object; but we cannot, on a perusal of Sir James Alexander's volumes, think that the sub-title 'Seven Years' Explorations in British America' is exactly warranted by the contents. Not more than three of these years were spent by our author in "explorations"—if by the word we are to assume that more than mere travel over well-known ground is meant. The remaining portion of the time alleged was consumed in pleasant wanderings and military quarters in Canada—accompanied by an average amount of adventure.

Soon after landing at Quebec Sir James Alexander was appointed to a company in the 14th Regiment—and ordered to Point Frederick on Lake Ontario. Here he remained during a year; and according to his own showing "spent a very agreeable time."

"Besides the usual drills, and after a school had been established for the men and the children of the company, an object of primary importance, I was anxious to practise the former in all manly exercises: I considered it my duty to do so, and besides, it was a great pleasure. I got a boat for them to practise rowing, and to teach them to swim; this last was done by means of a pole rigged horizontally from the stern of the boat, a rope ran through a ring at the far end of the pole, a girl at one end of the rope went round the learner's chest, and the other end was held by a man in the boat, who instructed the swimmer, whilst a rower pulled gently to and fro. The boat also enabled the men to amuse themselves with fishing, and to improve their mess. In the small field at the Point we had cricket and

quoits, a pole with a swivel at the top, and ropes depending from it, to perform what in gymnastics are called 'the giant's steps.' We had also leaping bars, and at a gable a 'fives' court, with wings, was constructed by means of a wall of boards, which cost only a couple of pounds, whilst the men paved the court with flags from the neighbouring Cataragin River. Summer and winter this cheap 'fives' court (a smaller one might be put up anywhere) afforded the men health and exercise. If no trouble is taken with soldiers to find them (after their drills and when off duty) the means of innocent recreation, and what will at the same time develop their physical powers, they will lounge about idly, or will probably consume their precious hours in smoking and drinking to kill the time. Soldiers should be 'strong for fighting,' active and cheerful; these desiderata cannot be effected by mere 'pipe-clay,' by brass polishing, and producing shining pouches. Of course a soldier should be smart and clean, and should turn out perfect according to regulation; at the same time, flank companies especially, (as well as battalion companies), should be able and willing to run, jump, climb, and swim; in short, they should at all times be in good wind, and have the free use of their limbs, and the officers should encourage the men in all this—not force them to engage in gymnastics, but put the means for practice within their reach. Thus good service for Her Majesty may be expected to be the result. With a light four-wheeled chaise and a good horse for land excursions, and a skiff for the Lake, we had the means of locomotion and taking our pleasure of an afternoon, either by driving through the woods, or rowing or paddling among the islands."

This canoe paddling and sailing is, it seems, rather ticklish work—requiring considerable experience and judgment. Sir James Alexander reports that when any one is drowned by the upsetting of a canoe, the Indians resort to a curious plan for discovering the body. An unfortunate man had been drowned near Sir James Alexander's quarters.—

"I had two parties out dragging all next day about the spot where Lavery was last seen, but without success; on the second day the trapper, MacConnell, went down and watched the proceedings, and he said 'try the Indian plan, float a chip of cedar down the stream, watch where it turns round, and drag there.' It was done; the chip floated down for some distance, then stopped, and turned round two or three times. One of the men looking over the side of one of the boats cried in some alarm, 'I see him!' The great body, appearing larger than life, in twelve feet of water, lay immediately under the cedar chip. It was speedily dragged to the surface. The Indians imagine that a particular vapour rising from a drowned body occasions the chip to circle over it, but it is more likely to be occasioned by the body at the bottom of the stream producing an eddy on the surface. Whatever is the cause, the fact is singular."

Our author having hurt one of his ankles by gymnastic exercises, a move to New York was recommended. There, Sir James consulted physicians; but neither they nor his infirmity seem to have prevented his participation in the amusements and entertainments of that city. He did not, however, give himself entirely up to frivolous amusements. He mixed occasionally with the scientific men of New York:—from one of whom he gleaned the following account of the colony of Welsh Indians.—

"It appeared from ancient record, that a Prince Madoc had left Wales in 1169, in consequence of civil wars, and had sailed from the coast, leaving Ireland to the north; he was absent for a year; when he returned he described a fine country and people in the Far West, and persuaded many of his countrymen to undertake another expedition with him. This second expedition never returned, and nothing more was heard of the adventurers; till in 1650 Morgan Jones, a Welsh clergyman, happening to visit America, went up a river in Virginia, where he was surprised and taken by a party of Indians, who made preparations to kill him; he turned aside, and began praying in Welsh, the Indians heard him, understood him, and sparing his life, they carried him to their tribe in the interior, where he remained



some time, teaching and preaching in Welsh, till he was allowed to return to the coast; eventually he died in New England. Mr. Bartlett had got possession of affidavits, and other documents, to attest the truth of the above. Mr. Crooks, the President of the American Fur Company, afterwards told me, that he had seen a woman of singular fairness a prisoner among the Pawnees; and that some of the Trappers who had been high up the Platte River, had seen Indians dwelling in narrow and retired valleys, who had different customs, and who practised arts of a superior order to the other Indian tribes. About this time a Welsh gentleman set out for the West to try and discover his lost countrymen, but what became of him I never learned."

As soon as our author was "off" the doctor's list, he moved from New York to Kingston; from whence he was ordered to London in Canada West. Vast forests with only partial clearings and small wooden houses of settlers had to be traversed ere the new quarters were gained.—

"The Canadian London, in 1842, contained about 2,600 souls. It is in the midst of a considerable clearing in the pine-woods, which on sandy ridges overhang the waters of the shallow and swift-running Thames; this river, after a long forest course, empties itself into Lake St. Clair. Among innumerable stumps and trunks, blasted by fire and girdling, were seen wide streets at right angles to each other. These were for the most part bordered by scattered wooden houses, of one and two stories, and many had vegetable gardens about them. Stumps of trees were seen in all directions along the street, and some might also have been found in the kitchens and cellars of the houses. In the principal thoroughfare, Dundas Street, where the best stores were, the houses were adjacent, and some few of brick. In the market-square there was a castellated court-house and gaol; a handsome English church, Scotch, Roman Catholic, Wesleyan, and other places of worship were in various parts of the town. Frame barracks for two regiments, and which cost 30,000*l.* currency, and log ones, both surrounded with loop-holed palisades, also an artillery barrack, were outside of it on high ground; and Col. Wetherall was busy clearing and levelling the ground all round them with working parties—most useful and healthful practice for soldiers. Three wooden bridges, that spanned the river, were dignified with the names of Blackfriars, Westminster, and Wellington; and on every side the view was bounded by the level tops of the dark forest. As to climate, it was dry and healthy; there was hardly ever an officer on the sick-list, and about four or five per cent. of the men in hospital at one time. Yet in the months of June, July, August, and September, the thermometer was often above 80°, and sometimes above 100° in the shade; whilst in winter, usually beginning about the 1st of December, and ending about the commencement of April, the quicksilver fell sometimes to 3°, 7°, and 10° below zero on successive days at sunrise, though usually the cold was not intense. For amusements, the military had their usual field-days on the drill-ground, their brigade-exercise in the country, a garrison theatre, a gymnasium, a racket-court, and a select pack of hounds, to fight against the monotony of 'the bush.' The officers did not pull up at the five-foot snake (or wooden zigzag) fence. The society of the town consisted of only three or four families. That of Mr. Harris, R.N., treasurer of the district, was particularly distinguished among the military, for hospitality and kindness; the social circle at their evening parties being always most cheerful and agreeable. It was anticipated that when the plank-roads, which were now in process of construction, from London to Brantford, to Port Stanley, Sarnia, Goderich, &c., should be completed, a great population would be 'located' along these roads, and that London would also rapidly increase. As few old people in the Old Country are acquainted with the nature of plank-roads, apparently so suitable for wooded countries in course of settlement, and which are now laid for hundreds of miles in Canada West, I beg to annex a short description of one. The whole breadth of the clearing through the forest is 64 feet, the road-bed is 30 feet wide, the ditches on each side are 8 feet wide at top, 2 feet at bottom, and 3 feet deep from the crown of the road. The plank-way, on which is the travel-

ling for rough-shod horses only, is 16 feet wide. There are five rows of sleepers, 4 + 6 inches, laid in the ground, the earth well rammed down on each side of them; 3-inch plank, 12 inches wide, is laid on the sleepers, and secured to them by spikes of iron, 6½ inches long by ¾ of an inch square. The road is graded to an elevation not to exceed 2½°; all the material should be of the best pine, and the expense averages 500*l.* currency per mile, or 400*l.* sterling. The road will probably last ten years, when it may be renewed, or its place supplied by a macadamised road, or a railroad. The road will pay for itself, indirectly, by attracting settlers. Some idea may be formed of the newness of the 'location' of London 'in the stumps,' when I say that two or three bears from the woods sauntered through the streets at night when we were there, and one of them on passing looked curiously at a sentry. The soldier was a good deal astonished at such a visitor to his post. Most of the officers liked London. There was an air of freedom about the place that could not fail to recommend it, and there were few who did not keep a horse, forage being cheap; and besides the riding there were deer, wild turkey, partridge and quail shooting near, and fishing also 'convenient' in the Westminster ponds. Above all, we had a chief who, though a strict disciplinarian, was one who joined and encouraged his officers and men in all their amusements."

A soldier's life is rarely monotonous. In Sir James's case the tedium of the long Canadian winter was relieved by a visit to the Falls of Niagara. We have descriptions innumerable of these as seen by summer tourists:—here they are under a different aspect.—

"The great cataract is seen by few travellers in its winter garb. I had seen it several years before in all the glories of autumn, its encircling woods, happily spared by the remorseless hatchet, and tinted with the brilliant hues peculiar to the American 'Fall.' Now the glory had departed; the woods were still there, but were generally black, with occasional green pines; beneath the grey trunks was spread a thick mantle of snow, and from the brown rocks, inclosing the deep channel of the Niagara River, hung huge clusters of icicles, twenty feet in length, like silver pipes of giant organs. The tumultuous rapids appeared to me to descend more regularly than formerly over the steps which distinctly extended across the wide river. \* \* \* The portions of the British, or Horse-shoe Fall, where the waters descend in masses of snowy whiteness, were unchanged by the season, except that vast sheets of ice and icicles hung on their margin; but where the deep waves of sea-green water roll majestically over the steep, large pieces of descending ice were frequently descried on its surface. No rainbows were now observed on the great vapour-cloud which shrouds for ever the bottom of the Fall; but we were extremely fortunate to see now plainly what I had looked for in vain at my last visit, the *water-rockets*, first described by Capt. Hall, which shot up with a train of vapour singly, and in flights of a dozen, from the abyss near Table Rock, curved towards the east, and burst and fell in front of the cataract. Vast masses of descending fluid produce this singular effect, by means of condensed air acting on portions of the vapour into which the water is comminuted below. Altogether the appearance was most startling. It was observed at 1 p.m. from the gallery of Mr. Barnett's museum. The broad sheet of the American Fall presented the appearance of light-green water and feathery spray, also margined by huge icicles. The great masses of rock at the bottom were covered, as it were, with pure white heaps of cotton, whilst on the left and in front of the Fall a cone was in process of formation from the congealing vapour. As in summer, the water rushing from under the vapour-cloud of the two Falls was of a milky whiteness as far as the ferry, when it became dark and interspersed with floating masses of ice. Here, the year before, from the pieces of ice being heaped and crushed together in great quantities, was formed a thick and high bridge of ice, completely across the river, safe for passengers for some time; and in the middle of it a Yankee speculator had erected a shanty for refreshments. Lately, at a dinner-party, I heard a staff-officer of talent, but who was fond of exciting wonder by his narratives, propose to the company a singular wager,—a bet of 100*l.*,

that he would go over the Falls of Niagara and come out alive at the bottom! No one being inclined to take him up, and after a good deal of discussion as to how this most perilous feat was to be accomplished, the plan was disclosed. To place on Table Rock a crane with a long arm reaching over the water of the Horse-shoe Fall; from this arm would hang by a stout rope a large bucket or cask; this would be taken up some distance above the Fall, where a mill-race slowly glides towards the cataract; here the adventurer would get into the cask, men stationed on the Table Rock would haul in the slack of the rope as he descended, and the crane would swing him clear from the cataract as he passed over. Here is a chance for any gentleman sportsman to immortalize himself?"

We have all heard of the Niagara rattlesnakes—of their prodigious numbers and deadly venom; but the following account of their use is probably new to many of our readers.—

"My respectable old friend, T. MacConnell, the trapper, told me, that he was in the habit of visiting Niagara for the purpose of killing the rattlesnakes for the sake of their fat, and that he has sometimes killed three hundred in a season, and thus—he watched beside a ledge of rocks where their holes were, and stood behind a tree, club in hand, and with his legs cased in sheepskins with the wool on, to guard against bites. The snakes would come out cautiously to seek on account of food or to sun themselves, fearing to go far for their enemies, the pigs. The trapper would then rush forward and lay about him with his club; those which escaped to their holes he seized by the tail, and if they turned round and bit him in the hand, he would spit some snake-root (which he kept chewing in his mouth) on the wound, it frothed up and danger would cease. The dead snakes were then roasted, hung up by the tail, over a slow fire, and their fat collected, taking care there was no blood in it. The fat would sell for twelve dollars a bottle, and was considered of great value by the country people in cases of rheumatism and stiff joints."

With this extract we must stop for the present:—it is probable that we shall return to Sir James Alexander's volumes.

*Letters of Queen Elizabeth and King James VI. of Scotland; some of them printed from Originals in the Possession of the Rev. Edward Ryder, and others from a MS. which formerly belonged to Sir Peter Thompson, Knight. Edited by John Bruce, Esq. Printed for the Camden Society.*

THE volume before us contains, in all, ninety-five letters: forty-three of which—chiefly consisting of Elizabeth's—have been printed from originals, mostly in her own handwriting, formerly in the possession of the late Mr. Ryder, solicitor to the Charterhouse; and the remaining fifty-two—which include those of James, as well as some of Elizabeth's—have been taken from a volume of transcripts formerly in the library of Sir Peter Thompson, and now the property of the Camden Society. The letters extend over a period of twenty years, from 1582 to 1602; and are valuable historical documents,—more especially for the light which they throw on the policy of Elizabeth and her ministers towards Scotland. This policy, as Mr. Bruce justly remarks,—

"Is ordinarily represented in a way which is almost incredible. We are desired to believe that the course of conduct adopted by those shrewd, far-seeing persons, towards their neighbour nation, was uncertain as the wind; that, heedless of consequences, and careless of principles, they upheld first one faction and then another, and were constant in nothing, save in a desire to profit by the strifes and embarrassments of the Scottish people. Elizabeth has been set forth in this respect as the very demon of discord, ever occupied maliciously in blowing coals of strife, which seldom needed encouragement in poor misguided Scotland. This view has been adopted by writers of both countries. By Scottish writers, partly, perhaps, because it tended to magnify the importance of their

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country. By English writers, because Scottish affairs have seldom been sought to be accurately understood. Upon this point we desire to see an entire revision of the historical evidence. All the evidence that we have examined, and certainly all that is contained in this book, points to two principles which consistently regulated the English policy towards Scotland during the time of Elizabeth. The one was, a determination that no Continental power should interfere by force of arms in Scottish affairs; the other, a similar determination to uphold Protestantism and the Protestant party, in opposition to that party which befriended Mary, and to that religion which Elizabeth (smarting under the dangers to which she was exposed by the papal excommunication) termed "Christian treason." The variable-ness and uncertainty which have been attributed to Elizabeth's policy are to be found only in that of James. Political inconsistency was contrary to her character and to the genius of her reign. From the hour of her accession, she was the head of Protestant Europe. Wherever Protestantism needed succour, England under Elizabeth was ready to give aid. That aid was given in France and in the Low Countries. So was it in Scotland. James's fickleness might occasionally render it necessary to change the particular direction in which the assistance was bestowed; but, so far as regards the evidence in the book now sent forth, it is clear, and we believe it will be found equally clear in whatever other quarter the subject is investigated, that so long as Elizabeth was on the throne, the principles we have stated guided the English policy towards Scotland, and were ever consistently maintained."

The earlier letters have chiefly reference to the feuds of the Border, and to the overthrow of Arran; and though valuable to the historical student, have little general interest. Those relating to Babington's conspiracy, are very characteristic; and so is the following, written by Elizabeth—still existing in its original autograph—written after the arrival of the Scottish commissioners in England, to intercede for Mary, now about to be put upon her trial.—

"I finde myself so troubled lest sinister tales might delude you, my good brother, that I have willingly found out this messenger, whom I knowe most sincere to you and a true subject to me, to carry unto you my most sincere meaning toward you, and to request this just desiar, that you neuer dout my intiere good wyl in your behalfe; and do protest, that, if you knewe, even sins the arrivall of your commissioners, (wiche if the[y] list the[y] may tell you,) the extreme dangier my life was in, by an ambassadors honest silence, if not invention, and suche good complices as haue themselves, by God's permission, unfolded the hole conspiracie, and haue aduouched hit befor his face, thought hit be the perill of ther owne lives, yet voluntarily, one of them neuer beinge suspected brake hit with a counceilar to make me acquainted therewith. You may see whither I kipe the serpent that poisons me, whan the[y] confes to haue reward. By sauing of her life the[y] wold haue had mine. Do I not make myself, trowe ye, a goodly pray for euery wretche to denour? Transfigure yourself into my state, and suppose what you aught to do, and thereafter wyl my life, and reiect the care of murder, and shun all bautes that may untie our smiles, and let all men knowe, that princes knowe best ther owne lawes, and misuge not that you knowe not. For my part, I wyl not lue to wronge the menest. And so I conclude you with your owne wordes, you wyl prosecute or mislike as muche thos that seake my ruine as yf the sought your hart bloud, and wold I had none in myne if I wold not do the like; as God knoweth, to whom I make my humble prayers to inspire you with best desiars.—Your most affectionated sistar and cousin, ELIZABETH R."

The answer of James is not preserved; but the Scottish commissioners proposed that Mary should be transferred into the custody of some neutral prince. In the subsequent letter Elizabeth alludes to this. "The wyl make," she says, "that her life may be saved and myne safe, wiche wold God wer true, for whan you make vewe of my long danger indured thes fower—wel ny fwe—moneths time to make a

fast of, the greatest witz amongs my owne, and than of French, and last of you, wyl graunt with me, that if nide wer not mor than my malice she shuld not have her merite. And now for a good conclusion of my long-taried-for answer. Your commissioners telz me, that I may trust her in the hande of some indifferent prince, and have all her cousins and allies promis she wil no more seake my ruine. Deare brother and cousin, way in true and equal balance wither the lak not muche good ground whan suche stuf serves for ther bilding. Suppose you I am so mad to truste my life in anothers hand and send hit out of my owne?"—This very characteristic epistle concludes with the hope that James may be made to see his "true friends."

The following letter from James, within a month after his mother's execution, shows how little sorrow it excited in his mind, and how willing he was to secure Elizabeth's favour.—

"Madame and dearest sister, Quhairas by your lettrir and bearear, Robert Carey youre seruand and ambassadoure, ye purge youre self of yone unhappy fact. As, on the one pairt, considering your rank and sex, consanguinitie and longe professed good wyl to the defunct, together with youre many and solemne attestations of youre innocence, I darr not wronge you so farre as not to iudge honorable of youre unspotted pairt thairin, so, on the other syde, I wishe that youre honorable behauioure in all tymes heir-after may fully persuaide the quhole worlde of the same. And, as for my part, I looke that ye will geue me at this tyme such a full satisfacion, in all respects, as sall be a meane to strenthin and unite this yle, establish and maintaine the treu religion, and oblige me to be, as of befoire I war, youre most louing [unsigned.]"

The letters relating to the Armada are very interesting. We have the letter which James, at Walsingham's suggestion, addressed to his "dearest sister," praying to be employed in the defence of England,— "not as a strangear and foreyne prince, bot as your natural sonne and compatriot of your cuntry in all respects;" and we have Elizabeth's noble letter notifying the defeat of the Armada. This has been already printed in Rymer; but "with such blanks and mistakes as fully justify its being reprinted" from the original autograph in Mr. Ryder's possession. We subjoin the first part.—

"Now may appeare, my deare brother, how malice conioined with might striveth to make a shameful end to a vilanous beginning, for, by God's singular fauor, having ther flete wel-beaten in our narrow seas, and pressing, with all violence, to atcheue some watering place, to continue ther pretended inuasion, the windz haue carried them to your costes, wher I dout not the[y] shal receaue smal succor and les welcome; vnles thos lordz that, so traitorslike, wold belie ther owne prince, and promis another king relie in your name, be suffred to live at libertie, to dishonor you, perill you, and aduance some other (wiche God forbid you suffer them live to do). Therfor I send you this gentilman, a rare younge man and a wise, to declare unto you my ful opinion in this greute cause, as one that neuer wyl abuse you to serve my owne turne; nor wyl you do aught that myselfe wold not performe if I wer in your place. You may assure yourselfe that, for my part, I dout no whit but that all this tirannical prowde and brainsick attempt wyl be the beginning, thogh not the end, of the ruine of that king, that, most unkingly, euen in midz of treating peace, begins this wrongful war. He hath procured my greatest glory that ment my sorest wrack, and hath so dimmed the light of his svnshine, that who hath a wyl to obtaine shame let them kipe his forces companye. But for all this, for yourselfe sake, let not the frendz of Spain be suffred to yeld them forse; for thogh I feare not in the end the sequele, yet if, by leaving them unhelpt, you may increase the English hartz unto you, you shal not do the worst dede for your behalfe; for if aught shuld be done, your excuse wyl play the boitenz; if you make not sure worke with the likeli men to do hit. Looke wel unto hit, I besiche you."

The subsequent letters relate to James's

marriage—to his conduct towards the Earl of Huntley, and towards the other Roman-Catholic lords who for many years were plotting to betray their country into the hands of Spain; and the mean, underhand, intriguing character of James, and the haughty, overbearing, but commanding spirit of Elizabeth, are vividly brought out in the course of the correspondence. The Stuart duplicity of James seems again and again to have excited the towering indignation of his "loving sister and cousin;" and she lectures him just as a governess would a naughty boy who ought to be put in the corner. Truly, the royal school-master had reason to wince under the rod of this royal schoolmistress. Here is a specimen. It was written on occasion of the discovery of the plot known by the name of the "Spanish Blanks." On the first discovery, Elizabeth addressed the letter to James of which the following is an extract.—

"Now, of late, by a fortunate good hap, a lewd felowe hath bine apprehended with letters and instructions. I pray God he be so wel handle as he may confes all his knowledge in the Spanische conspiracie, and that you use not this man as slightly as you don the ringelinders of this treason. I vowe, if you do not rake hit to the botome, you wyl verifie what many a wise man hath (vewing your providings) judged of your gilltines of your owne wrack; with a wining, that the[y] wyl you noharne in inabling you with so riche a protector, that wyl prove, in the ende, a destroiur. I haue beheld, of late, a strange, dishonorable, and dangerous pardon, wiche if hit be true, you haue not only neglected yourselfe but wronged me, that haue to muche procured your good to be so ivelguerdoned with such a wrong, as to haue a fre forgiuenes of nught conspired against my person and estat. Suppose you, my deare brother, that thes be not rather ensignes of an enemy than the tast of a frinde? I require, therfor, to al this, a resolute answer, wiche I chalenge of right, that may be dides, bothe by spidy apprehension with bisy regard, and not in sort as publik rumor may precede present action, but rather that the[y] be intrapped or the[y] do looke therfor; for I may make deme you wold not haue [them] taken, and what wyl folowe than, you shal see whan lest you looke. Think me, I pray you, not ignorant what becometh a king to do, and that wyl I never omit."

Here is another specimen. Elizabeth had heard that James had spoken some disrespectful words respecting her in his Parliament. What they were, has not been ascertained; but Sir William Bowes was despatched for an explanation; and he was the bearer of a most angry letter,—from which the following is extracted.—

"I doe wonder what evyll spiritts haue possest you, to set forth so infamous devyses, void of any shewe of trothe. I am sorry that you have so wilfully falen from your best stay, and will needs throwe your self into the huripole of bottomles discredit. Was the hast so great to hye to such oprobry, as that you wold pronounce a never-thought-of action afore you had but asked the question of her that best could tell it? I see well wee two be of very different natures, for I vowe to God I would not corrupt my tongue with an vnknewen report of the greatest foe I have, muche lesse could I detract my best-deserving freinde with a spott so fowle as scarsly may ever be outraised. Could you roote the desire of giftes of your subjects vpon no better grounde than this quagmire, wich to passe you scarcely may, without the slyppe of your own disgrace? Shall imbasage be sent to forayne princes laden with instrungons of your raise advised charge? I assure you the travaile of your creased words shal passe the boundes of to many landes, with an imputation of suche levity, as when the true sonshine of my sincere dealing and extraordinary care ever for your safety and honor shall overshade to farr the dymme and mystic cloudes of false invecitives. I never yet loved you so little as not to moane your infamous dealynges wich you are in mynde. We



see that my self shall possess more princes wytness of my causeless injuries, which I could have wished had passed no seas, to testify such memorials of your wrongs. Bethink you of such dealings, and set your labour upon such mends as best may."

The letter of James in answer must have excited Elizabeth's contempt yet further. He waives a "particular" answer to her letter, "since it becomes me not to stryue with a ladie, especiallie in that airt quhairin thaire sexe moste excellis;" and he pretends to comfort himself because in "that passionate letter" some sparks of love shine through! He also quotes the even then hackneyed proverb, "*Amantium ira amoris redintegratio est*;" and trusts that "the fruitis of our contesting shall be sweet althoch the buddis thair of wairre sowre." Elizabeth's answer to this precious epistle is not given. Probably she did not think it worth an answer. At the close of the year she sends him a short letter, concluding with a new-year's-gift of good advice. This is very characteristic.—

"The best newe years guifte that I can geve you for this cominge year shall be, that in your greatest causes you heede well from what spirits the counsells that you will followe do come, and God send you his grace to make a trewe scanlin betwix what is pretended and ment. And judge a-rightly twixt what seems may be your best, and that must needs be in deede. So shall you never do ought that may indanger yourself with thought to do you good, nor wrong your best friend that means you but good and yet will not abyde a wronge. And for your own dominions, I wish you guide them so as no innovators mar the fashion of your old governmente. Diseases there be in shewe not dangerous, but in continuance perillous. Thus will I end, with this request, that you [consider] the mind of the giver, not the meane-esse of the guifte, which proceedeth from her that desirith of God a good grant to these my wishes.

"Your most affectionate sister and cousin,  
"E."

These letters are printed *literatim*:—a plan which, we agree with Mr. Bruce, is the best in a work like the present, "as it renders the publication almost in the nature of a *fac-simile*, and therefore a better substitute for the original, in case it should happen to be lost." The peculiarities of spelling, too, are not without interest. The exceedingly broad Scotch which James spoke is evident from his autograph letters. The "cockneyisms" of Elizabeth's pronunciation seem to us a strong additional proof of the correctness of Dr. Pegge's opinion, pronounced long ago, that these were indeed venerable archaisms. We know that her father always expressed himself "hable" to maintain his authority; and we find his daughter aspiring the vowels like a very dweller beneath the sound of Bow bells. It is always, as the reader has doubtless observed, written "hit." In other words we observe she uses what has long ago been considered a vulgar pronunciation. We have "desarve" for *deserve*, "swarve" for *swerve*, "kipe" for *keep*. All these peculiarities are not without their use to the inquirer into the progress of the English language.

#### MEDICAL WORKS.

*The Medical Gazette.*—We last week alluded to the announcement of Dr. Brittan, that he had discovered in the rice-water dejections of those affected with cholera a fungoid body which he thought might be regarded as the cause of this terrible disease. We then stated that we hoped further observations would be made on the subject; and we find that Dr. Wm. Budd, of Bristol, has observed the same bodies under the same circumstances. It also appears that Dr. Brittan has been associated in his observations with Mr. Swayne, of Bristol; and the bodies seen by them have been witnessed by several other gentlemen in Bristol. During the past week Dr. Brittan has been in London, and has submitted his specimens to several

microscopic observers:—amongst others to Mr. Quekett. That gentleman in a published note says, he has no hesitation in stating that in his judgment the specimens procured by Dr. Brittan from the air of cholera districts, choleric vomit and evacuations, are successive stages of development of the same body,—and which he believes to be of a fungoid nature.

The bodies which are thus said to characterize the air of cholera districts and the contents of the stomach and bowels of cholera patients are cellular in their character and of very minute size. According to Dr. Brittan's measurement, those in the atmosphere measured "from the 10,000th to the 3,000th part of an inch in diameter—those in vomit from the 3,000th to the 5,000th—those in dejections from the 6,000th to the 500th." From these measurements "the inference is," says Dr. Brittan, "to me conclusive that the annular bodies of the atmosphere, vomit, and dejection, are but the three stages of development of one and the same body, of whatever nature it may be." Dr. Brittan has not, in the paper in the *Medical Gazette* from which these extracts are made, committed himself to the theory that these bodies produce cholera. He leaves his readers to draw that inference.

Dr. W. Budd is, however, bolder. He has seen the cells in question not only in the air of cholera districts and in the dejections of cholera patients, but also in the waters of infected districts:—in Bristol in several places, and in London in water from Lovegrove Street and the Surrey Canal. From his own observations and those of others, he concludes—

1. That the cause of malignant cholera is a living organism of distinct species.
2. That this organism, which seems to be of the fungus tribe, is taken, by the act of swallowing, into the intestinal canal, and there becomes infinitely multiplied by the self-propagation which is characteristic of living beings.
3. That the presence and propagation of these organisms in the intestinal canal, and the action they there exert, are the cause of the peculiar flux which is characteristic of malignant cholera, and which taken with its consequences, immediate and remote, constitutes the disease.
4. That the new organisms are developed only in the human intestine.
5. That these organisms are disseminated through society,—1st, in the air, in the form of impalpable particles; 2nd, in contact with articles of food; and 3rd, and principally, in the drinking-water of infected places.
6. That these organisms may probably be preserved for a long time in the air with their powers unimpaired; but that in water, which is doubtless the chief vehicle for their diffusion, they soon undergo decay, and moreover—sharing in this the common fate of their tribe—become the prey of beings of a higher order.

Here, then, we are committed to the full extent of the fungus theory of cholera—a theory, it should be recollected, that has much *à priori* to support it. A short time since we noticed a clever essay by Dr. Cowdell in which this theory was advocated on entirely *à priori* arguments. We understand, also, that this theory is maintained as the most probable explanation of the cause of cholera by Dr. Alison, of Edinburgh. It has much to recommend it as a probable explanation of the modern facts of the history of the disease.

That, however, this theory has been established by the observations of Dr. Brittan and his friends, we must for the present take leave to doubt. In the first place, we do not think it has been clearly proved that the bodies in question are fungi at all. That they are cellular, and that many vegetable bodies are cellular, we admit; but the sporules and cells of most of the fungi assume a much more definite character than those figured by Dr. Brittan. In most of the secretions of the human body cells of the mucous membrane and of the secretions themselves are found present, which under very high powers and with persons unaccustomed to microscopic observations might be mistaken for fungi.

In the next place, it does not follow that the bodies found in the water and in the air have any connexion or necessary relation with each other. We should expect that if due precautions were taken in any atmosphere where fungi were fructifying, their sporules might be obtained:—and we are sure that it would be very puzzling to distinguish the sporules of one species of fungus from those of another. Again, in dirty, tainted waters of almost any kind we should expect to find floating cells of living organisms or decomposing organic matter. Were the bodies spoken of as producing cholera of larger size, they

might be possibly identified in various stages of growth; but with bodies requiring glasses of the twelfth of an inch focus to observe them we cannot but fear that general resemblances in form might mislead.

In the third place, we have the negative evidence that these bodies have not been observed in some cases of cholera and in some cholera districts. We know in the use of an instrument like the microscope how frequently an incapability of using it leads to negative results; but we have the testimony of one of our most profound microscopic observers—and one who has perhaps more opportunities of observing cholera than any other individual in the kingdom—that he has in vain looked for the bodies described by Drs. Brittan and Budd in the dejections of persons attacked with cholera and in the stomach and intestines after death. We also have heard of the failure of very competent observers in London to detect the bodies described in the atmosphere of localities affected with cholera.

Thus far, then, we think, we have not a sufficient groundwork of facts to bear anything like the superstructure which Dr. William Budd has built upon it. There are also some general objections to a fungus theory of the origin of cholera, which ought to have their weight in opposition to it as even a probable explanation. For instance, the argument in favour of the fungus theory from analogy is not so complete as many of its advocates seem to think. It is by no means certain that under any circumstances fungi or their spores are capable of producing disease, even with regard to their attacks on vegetables; as in the potato disease, the blight, smut, brand, and ergot of the cerealia there is much reason to believe that they are rather the result than the cause of the diseased state. So with the coniferoid growths that have been found on the bodies of animals in a state of disease.

Even admitting that the fungi produced the diseases with which they are so constantly associated in animals and plants,—there is a wide difference between the nature of these attacks and that of cholera. In the case of animals the progress of diseases accompanied with fungi is remarkably slow,—being all of a chronic kind; whilst the rapidity of the progress of disease in cholera is one of its distinguishing symptoms. Many instances are recorded, especially in Hindostan, of persons being attacked and dying within the hour. In innumerable cases in this country persons have been attacked so suddenly with the peculiar symptoms of the disease that it is almost impossible to attribute it to the action of a fungoid growth. It should be remembered that the fungus theory cannot suppose that the fungus is taken into the blood,—but that it attaches itself to the mucous membrane of the intestines, and thereby destroying the vitality of that surface produces the peculiar set of phenomena known as cholera. That a fungus should in the course of an hour or two spread sufficiently to produce such effects, is quite beyond the range of our present experience.

Since writing the above, we understand that a gentleman in London has succeeded in discovering the cholera fungus in drains and cesspools: and Dr. Cowdell announces, in the *Medical Gazette*, that he has found a fungus—but apparently very different from that of Dr. Brittan—in the perspiration of persons affected with cholera. We submit that all these observations prove too much. They only show how very generally present, and how varied, are the forms of organic cells,—and that to attribute to them any special agency at the present stage of the inquiry is highly unphilosophical, and not unlikely to be attended with great practical errors.

#### OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

*Fresnel and his Followers. A Reply to the Calumnies of the Athenæum.* By Robert Moon, M.A.—In our notice of the work which has called forth this pamphlet, we censured with some severity the language used by the author whenever he spoke of any philosopher whose views were opposed to his own. He now denies that the passages quoted by us were applicable as we stated them to be. Upon a careful re-examination of the work we are satisfied of our correctness—and well contented to endure the railings of one who has not the decency to respect even the names of those whose labours have ensured to them



unfading reputation. We should not have noticed the writer's present discreditable display of malignity, but for the purpose of assuring him that nothing "has occurred but apt to sway" our judgment respecting him. He is personally unknown to us; and with the exception of having seen his name once or twice in the *Philosophical Magazine*, we never heard of him until his book came into our hands. Let us further assure him, that he cannot induce us by this "trick of fence" to give him the notoriety for which apparently he craves. In this we are kinder to him than he is to himself. If we had against him the ill-will which he supposes, we could not gratify it more effectually than by reproducing against him some of the language in which he has here thought it decent or philosophical to indulge. We will only add, that he seems to have considered the use of scurrility as dispensing him from the necessity of argument.

*A Biographical and Critical Dictionary of Painters and Engravers.* By Michael Bryan. New edition, by George Stanley.—Had this been a mere reprint of Bryan's book, Mr. Bohn would have been entitled to thanks for having compressed the two quarto volumes into one handsome octavo, and thus brought a valuable and useful book within the limited means of artists and others interested in the history of Art. He has done more; he has entrusted it to an able and diligent editor. Bryan's work was excellent in its day; but it is of the nature of such works that they require from time to time to be revised and continued;—and of late years, especially in Germany, so much attention has been paid to the subject, that Mr. Stanley has been enabled to amplify many memoirs, add new ones, and correct numberless minute errors. He has, however, with delicacy and propriety, retained every word of the original text and inserted the additions and corrections between brackets; so that the reader, when the points are open to discussion, has all the facts before him and can form his own judgment. It is said in the Preface that 1,300 new names have been introduced, and the Dictionary has been augmented to at least double the quantity of matter contained in the two quarto volumes! This, we have no doubt, is correct;—for not only, as we have remarked, have valuable additions been made to the original memoirs, but the work has been continued so as to include those of distinguished artists down to the present day.

*Sontagems.* By Mrs. Newton Crosland (late Camilla Toulmin).—This is another of the now numerous class of books for the young:—in average merit a shade superior to the generality. The authoress avoids the usual fault of "writing down to the supposed capacities of children,"—but falls into an opposite one. Occasionally her plot becomes too complex and her style too ornate for youthful readers, whose interest is best awakened and sustained by a graceful simplicity. The right feeling which pervades the book causes us to regret that its writer should have made the mistake indicated by the title. To exhibit the deformity of vice is not the best way of inculcating virtue—particularly where uncorrupted minds are concerned. The method has the defect of presenting the poison for the sake of the antidote.

*Highland Destitution.* First Report of the Edinburgh Section of the Central Board for the Relief of Destitution in the Highlands and Islands of Scotland for 1848.—Second, Third and Fourth Reports, ditto.—A perusal of these Reports almost leads to the belief that destitution has become an endemic disease in the islands and mountain districts of the west and north of the Scottish kingdom. In 1847 charity was younger and more generous than it is now. The presence of so much misery has almost made it callous. One result of this change of feeling we find in the proceedings of the Board of Relief. In the first season of the famine, charity was organized on a large scale. The State contributed funds, and private philanthropy found time to superintend the distribution of the nation's bounty. The grants, however, were not eleemosynary. A labour test was applied to the applicant for relief,—that is, for every shilling given a shilling's worth of work was exacted. Certainly no fault could be found with this proceeding in an economical sense. Mere gifts seldom do the receivers good. To know the value of money, a man must earn it for himself,—he who lives on the bounty of another is rarely thrifty or forethoughtful. To

pension a district is a way to demoralize it. But there is a limit even to the rigours of science. To exact in labour the value of the assistance rendered is a proceeding hardly open to objection; but the Edinburgh Board have gone beyond this point. They have increased the labour and diminished the payments, until there is no longer any proportion between them. In fact, they have abandoned the labour test and adopted in its place a destitution test. Thus, the relief fund, instead of wearing the form of charity, comes as a task-master, taking advantage of the necessities of the poor,—which many will rather die than submit to. Whole villages have got up a violent hostility to the change; and, singularly enough, the Board—or at least their reporters—pride themselves on the disaffection produced by their measures as a signal proof of its success! We confess to an inability to comprehend this logic.

*The Miscellaneous Writings of Pascal, with Introduction and Notes.* By George Pearce, Esq.—This edition of the miscellaneous works of the great Jansenist is translated from the corrected French edition of M. P. Faugère; and its contents consist of letters, essays, conversations, and miscellaneous thoughts, many of them never before clothed in an English garb and only recently discovered in France. To enter into the merits of Pascal as a writer and thinker would require much time and space,—and is not necessary. Of the translation, so far as we have examined it, we can say that it is smooth, pointed and correct. It is no easy task to reduce a style like Pascal's into another idiom; but Mr. Pearce has so far overcome the difficulty as seldom to offend the ear most accustomed to the graceful march of his author's periods. This is saying much,—as the initiated in such matters will readily understand.

*Historical and Miscellaneous Questions for the Use of Young Persons; with a Selection of British and General Biography.* By Richard Mangnall. A New Edition, considerably augmented and improved; including an original Outline of Ancient Geography and History, Ecclesiastical and Modern History—a Compendium of the Elements of Astronomy, &c. Illustrated with twenty-seven Maps and sixty-four Engravings. By William Pincock.—The title-page says all that is needful for characterizing this volume.

*History of Hannibal the Carthaginian.* By Jacob Abbott. With Illustrations.—The well-known authorities have been consulted in the composition of this popular narrative:—which is written in the same easy style that characterizes the author's other compilations.

*The Romaunt Version of the Gospel according to St. John.* By W. S. Gilly, D.D.—This volume is fraught with interest to the Biblical student as containing "part of the earliest complete version of the New Testament which is now known to exist in any vernacular European language of the dark and middle ages, either in print or in manuscript,"—to the historian as illustrating the state of opinion throughout the South of Europe in the twelfth century,—and to the philologist as exhibiting the transition of the Latin language from its classical purity to the modern forms into which it has been moulded. The choice both of the subject and of the editor does honour to the Syndics of the Cambridge Pitt Press, who have defrayed the expenses of its publication out of the funds at their disposal. The introduction, which occupies nearly half the book, gives an account of the principal modern versions of Scripture, with more minute details with reference to those in the language of the Troubadours, specimens of several of the existing MSS., and fac-similes—beautifully executed—of the Grenoble, Zurich, and Paris MSS. The editor, who everywhere shows himself completely master of his subject, maintains the propriety of calling the present *The Romaunt* version—notwithstanding the attempts of Mr. George Cornewall Lewis to show that the language spoken in the South of France and Catalonia was merely a Romance language—on the grounds, that the different dialects of which Mr. Lewis asserts this to be one so nearly resemble each other as to be all understood by those acquainted with one, and the Provençal-Romaunt of the Troubadours is allowed to contain more literary remains than any other dialect. He hopes to publish a complete Romaunt translation of the New Testament at some future time. We trust neither he nor the public will be disappointed.

*An Inquiry into the proper Mode of rendering the word "God" in translating the Sacred Scriptures into the Chinese Language.* With an Examination of the various Opinions which have prevailed on this important Subject, especially in reference to their Influence on the Diffusion of Christianity in China. By Sir George Thomas Staunton, Bart. M.P.—The full transcription of this title renders an explanation of the contents needless:—and its topic lies without our sphere of critical duty.

*Political Principles and Political Consistency.* By "Plain Facts."—A commentary on public men and events by a follower of the Pitt and Burke school of politics:—chiefly remarkable for its tone of determined commonplace and its quotation of authorities who are not in any sense authorities. The quotations from one historical writer of no repute are so numerous as almost to suggest the propriety of transferring the name from the foot-notes to the title-page.

*Emigration for the Million: being the Digest of a Plan for more equally locating the Population of Great Britain and Ireland throughout the British Empire.* By Gershom.—Offers no suggestion of novelty or interest to the reader of emigration prospectuses.

*The Employment of the People and Capital of Great Britain in her own Colonies, at the same time assisting Emigration and Penal Arrangements by undertaking a Great National Work: and thus opening the shortest Road to the most extensive Regions of Wealth ever before at the Command of any Nation in the World (not regions of Gold, but for Commerce and Industry) so that at no future period (within at least the imagination of man) will Great Britain have to complain either of too Great a Population on her Soil, or too Small a Market for her Labour.*—All this fully explained in a letter from Major Robert Carmichael Smyth to his friend the Clockmaker.—Is the reader out of breath? If not, there is hope that he may get through the entire title at a gasp,—for, to confess the truth, we have only transcribed about one half of it. The Major's lines are almost as formidable as a Sikh intrenchment. However, he goes on to say that all this fine work is to be effected by the construction of a Canadian railway:—on which subject we have already ventured an opinion more than once. Major Carmichael Smyth, however, beats all former speculators. Not content with an iron-way from Halifax to Quebec, he boldly proposes to push across Lower Canada, the Rocky Mountains, and British Oregon. Nothing arrests his zeal: lakes, prairies, rivers, mountains are surmounted with ease—on paper. The red lines of his projected routes look quite tempting on the map; but we have little hope—fast as the world is going—of living to see them realized. The proposed railway would cross the broadest and most desert part of the American continent—would be more than 11,000 miles in length—and would cost more than 100 millions! We recommend the study of this scheme to such of our readers as are interested in the history of extraordinary hallucinations.

*Transactions of the Tyndeside Naturalists' Field Club.* Vol. I., Parts I. and II.—Newcastle-upon-Tyne since the time of Bewick has been distinguished amongst the towns of England for its cultivators of natural history. Its flourishing Natural History Society and admirable museum are the results of this taste among its inhabitants. A still further result—of which we have here the first-fruits—has been the formation of the Tyndeside Naturalists' Field Club. The object of this Club is, the practical study of natural history in all its branches; and in order to enhance the interests and increase the numbers at the meetings the antiquaries of the district have been invited to unite with the Club. The members of the Club hold five meetings in the year at some convenient spot; when the early part of the day is spent in rambles, and the latter part in reading a paper on some subject of natural history. The 'Transactions' contain an account of these proceedings: consisting of notes of their excursions, and on the objects of interest met with,—together with some of the papers read on such occasions and abstracts of others. The present Parts are enriched by a Catalogue of the Insects of Northumberland and Durham, drawn up by Messrs. Hardy and Bold,—and the Catalogue of the Mollusca of those counties, by Mr. Joshua Alder. These catalogues are very valuable:—and the 'Transactions' as a whole are highly creditable to the naturalists of Newcastle. We hope their example will not be

without imitators; and that Naturalists' Field Clubs will be found in many of our great towns with similar good results.

[ADVERTISEMENT.]—His Royal Highness Prince Albert has been pleased to appoint Edwin Saunders, Esq. of George-street, Hanover-square, to be Surgeon-Dentist in Ordinary, in the room of Mr. Vamir, deceased.—*London Gazette*, October 2.

## LIST OF NEW BOOKS.

Anecdotes of Kings, new ed. sq. 2s. 6d. cl.  
Aytoun's (W. E.) *Lays of the Scottish Cavaliers*, 2nd ed. 12mo. 9s. cl.  
Cattow's (Agnes) *Popular Field Botany*, 2nd ed. 16mo. 10s. 6d. cl.  
Chapters on Deacons, 18mo. 2s. 6d. cl.  
Clement's Customs Guide for 1849-50, 12mo. 6s. cl.  
Cloncurry's (Lord) *Personal Recollections*, 8vo. 14s. cl.  
Corfe's (Dr. G.) *The Physiology of Diseases*, 4to. 10s. 6d. cl.  
De la Motte's (P. H.) *On Anatole's Fables and Papyrography*, 4s. 6d. cl.  
Gay's (Rev. W.) *Village Sermons*, royal 12mo. 6s. cl.  
Iriahman (The) *at Home*, illustrated, 12mo. 2s. 6d. cl.  
Jean's (H. W.) *Problems in Astronomy, Surveying, &c.* new ed. 6s. 6d. cl.  
Johnson's (H. W.) *Rules and Examples in Navigation*, 2s. 5d. cl.  
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## SIR JOHN FRANKLIN'S EXPEDITION.

OUT of the cloud which day by day and month by month was settling down more deep and dark upon the fate of Sir John Franklin's expedition has dawned a sudden light. The first effect of this unexpected revelation was positively startling. The time for hope was nearly gone by in all hearts save that of the noble wife who would not part with hope,—and who, with a sort of heroic confidence which until to-day it was almost as mournful as it was admirable to witness, is now, at the period of the Arctic returns, in the Orkneys, that she may be the first to welcome home her husband!—The effect of a second glance at the light now suddenly let in is, considerably to detract from its brightness:—nevertheless, the public will be glad to be relieved even for a time from the painful conviction which we believe had already taken possession of its mind in regard to the lost explorers.

As early as the beginning of this week there had been a renewal of the interest (though not, we think, of the hope) which had long agitated men's minds in reference to the missing Expedition. It was announced to the public by the *John o' Groat Journal*, that one of the whalers had brought in a sealed bottle containing documents from Sir John Franklin addressed to the Admiralty—which had been picked up by the natives. This bottle, or cylinder, was immediately forwarded to the Admiralty,—and we waited with anxiety for the delivery of its oracle. On Tuesday that department issued a notice which surrendered back the subject to its painful mystery.—“The cylinder picked up and sent to the Admiralty only contained information to the 30th June, 1845, from Sir John Franklin's ships,—which had been heard of subsequent to that date.” Another whaler has now come in with a message somewhat more substantial—which the Secretary to the Admiralty communicated without loss of time to the *Sun* newspaper, for the information of the public, on Thursday last—demanding for it a prominent place.—“From communications made this day to the Lords of the Admiralty by the editor of the *Shipping and Mercantile Gazette* evening newspaper, some hopes are entertained that the news brought by Captain Parker, of the *True Love*, arrived at Hull, from Davis's Straits, of Sir John Franklin's ships having been seen by the natives as late as March last, beset by the ice, in Prince Regent's Inlet, is not without foundation. From the same source reports have been received that Sir James Ross's ships are in the south [?] of Prince Regent's Inlet, and that the vessels of both expeditions are safe. This hope is somewhat strengthened by the telegraphic message to the Admiralty, since received from the Mayor of Hull, where the *True Love* arrived last night.” If these tidings may be relied on, in all probability the lost

voyagers have been ere this relieved,—and Lady Franklin is not at the Orkneys in vain. As the *Sun* observes, “The meeting among those regions of eternal winter, and the return of the adventurers homewards, will be among the most enthralling incidents recorded in that encyclopædia of marvels and heroism, the ‘Library of Voyages and Travels.’”

—The following extract from a letter addressed to the Secretary of the Admiralty by the owner of the vessel which brought the exciting intelligence, contains, so far as we have been able to ascertain, the grounds on which a hope is officially expressed that the tidings may be well founded.—

“It appears that the Chieftain and other ships got to Pond's Bay a day or two before the *True Love*: immediately they reached that place some of the natives went on board, and, without questioning, the man drew the sketch, and by signs and in words of his own language, understood by the masters of the whalers, stated that two of the ships had been frozen up for four years on the west side of Prince Regent's Inlet, and that the other two had been frozen up on the east side for one year—that the two ships which had been there the longest had tried to get beyond Cape Rennell, but not being able had come into Prince Regent's Inlet to winter, where the ice had not broken up since—that he and his companions had been on board all the four ships in March last, and they were then all safe.”

On the 22nd of July Captain Parker, of the *True Love*, left the fishing-ground, determined to endeavour to reach Sir John Franklin and his crews. The whaler *Advice* accompanied the *True Love* in this attempt. They proceeded into Lancaster Sound, as far as Croker's Bay; but an entirely solid body of ice stretched across from Croker's Bay to Admiralty Inlet, and compelled them to retrace their steps.

As yet, then, the matter rests on the testimony of the natives. If that can be received with confidence, the safety of Sir John Franklin and his companions up to a comparatively recent date would seem to be assured. We trust earnestly that this may be so,—and that to the high-hearted wife's long trial may not be added the terrible addition of an apparently substantial hope given only to be withdrawn.

## OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

A large number of gentlemen interested in agriculture and sanitary improvements assembled on Monday last in the theatre of the Mechanics' Institute, for the purpose of witnessing the deodorizing effects of peat charcoal. The absorbing power exerted by charcoal upon carbonic acid, sulphuretted hydrogen, and other gases, as well as its influence in arresting the decomposition of vegetable and animal matters, have long been well known to chemists, and applied to many practical purposes. The difficulty of procuring, and the consequent great price of, charcoal have always forbidden the application of it as a deodorizer for the same purposes as those to which chlorine and its preparations are applied. Besides, as an ordinary disinfecting agent charcoal would be an awkward and unmanageable substance. It has been, however, discovered that peat when properly burnt yields a charcoal equally available for deodorizing purposes with any other vegetable matter. The quantity of charcoal which may thus be obtained from Ireland is almost inexhaustible,—and as labour is cheap there, it can be obtained at a low price. The question, then, has occurred to those who are anxious to do something for Ireland.—Can this charcoal be used as a deodorizer? The answer to the question, so limited, would be,—“Certainly not.” But both the charcoal and the substance to be deodorized are excellent manures;—mixed together they constitute one of the most valuable compounds that can be used by the agriculturist. The gentlemen who met together on Monday last had it abundantly proved to them that peat-charcoal when mixed with animal refuse is capable of removing from it every trace of disagreeable smell, and no doubt of dangerous exhalation. The two great questions in connexion with this subject next to be considered are—first, the expense of the charcoal,—and secondly, the practicability of a plan for applying it to the deodorizing of the impurities of towns. Should the mixture be found to pay as a manure, two very grand objects of our social existence would be accomplished. First, the direct return to the soil of the valuable elements which feed plants from whence we obtain our food,—and secondly the getting quit of the noxious effluvia which now so often generate disease.

The American papers throw out a suggestion to English publishers, by which they fancy that some

of the evils arising out of the want of a copyright law between the two countries will be rectified.—namely, that they shall offer the English editions of all the best books to the transatlantic public at half-price. We are told that after several editions of Macaulay's ‘History of England’ had been sold in the United States, the London publishers sent out a large number of copies to be sold there at half of the retail price at home; and they are found fault with for not having done this at first,—as in that case, it is said, they might have sold at least 25,000 copies. Possibly,—and perhaps if they would have consented to give it for much less—or for nothing,—they might have distributed so many more. We are not fully alive to the reasonableness of selling the same book in London for two guineas, in New York for one. If the present want of law admits of a work being pirated abroad,—the author and publisher thereby wronged have at least the unsatisfactory satisfaction of a protest against the injury. What is now asked of them is simply to withdraw the protest. A form of acquiescence in their own loss is proposed to them. It is suggested as a remedy against robbery, that they shall reduce the price below the point at which the goods are worth stealing. The English bookseller is offered the privilege of doing that in the ‘Row’ for the invasion of his own interests which otherwise will be done for him in the Broadway. The suggestion involves a mode of dealing with the copyright question which we should be sorry to see acted upon. A very different solution of this vexed question is needed; and now that an English Court has ruled that by the terms of existing laws an American cannot sustain a right to hold literary property in this country, it is probable that the Government of the United States will be induced to take steps towards an adjustment of the matter. We understand that more than one American writer has already been made to feel the consequences of the recent decision in his dealings with the trade in London. We know of one book in three volumes, of which the reprint was commenced—and stopped. The publisher had no assurance that his three-half-guineas book would not appear in a few days in the shilling library—so withdrew his risk. The American author now stands in a similar relation in this country to the English author in America: and the wrong being thus reciprocal, it is possible that efforts may be more seriously made on the other side of the water—which we will be willing to match on this—to obtain an equitable law on the subject.

We see that Capt. J. D. Cunningham has been removed from his political employment in Bhopal for making use, in his ‘History of the Sikhs,’ of official papers not generally accessible to the public. This has been a common offence in India: and the present is the first time, we believe, that an officer there has been dismissed of political employment for an offence which in Capt. Cunningham's instance is free from anything of a very guilty or reprehensible character.

A very pleasing and really useful meeting of antiquaries was held at Thetford on Thursday week,—when the members of the Norfolk and Norwich Archaeological Society met by appointment the members of the West Suffolk Archaeological Society. The plans of the two Societies were well matured; and excavators under the control of enthusiastic antiquaries from both Norfolk and Suffolk were employed some weeks before in laying bare the filled-up foundations of the old Priory founded by Herbert Losinga as an atonement or compensation, it is said, for removing his see from Thetford to Norwich. When we observe, that our knowledge of the grand plan of the Priory up to the time of the present examination was confined to the nave and transepts of the building, and that the two Societies have laid bare the choir, lady chapel, cloisters, chapter-house and refectory,—our readers will easily see that their labours have been well directed and of real service. Some of the bases of the pier arches, perfect as though fresh from the chisel of the mason, were found at a depth of six feet below the present surface. Two or three coffins were discovered at the same time; but the great discovery is the ground plan and Norman character of the whole building. The ruins belong to the Hon. F. Baring; and Mr. Harrod and Mr. Tymms, the honorary secretaries of the Societies, promise, we observe, to follow up their



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excavations before many months are over. Seeing that we have no really authentic plans of the general arrangement of monastic buildings in England, it is to be hoped that one of the two associations will publish the plan of Thetford. Meetings of the description do good: we should like to see the antiquaries of Kent meeting the antiquaries of Surrey on some suitable ground for their inquiries and exertions. There are plenty of ruins that will, we believe, reward the antiquary for his labour with spade and pick-axe.

The spirit of revolution has at length reached England! A gentleman of the good old school has found it out, though it had chosen the most unlikely of places, from Mile End to Notting Hill, wherein to set up its banner—the cellars of the Mint. The Queen is made to pass away a portion of her birthright with the money of her own coining. *Idem Majestas* is circulating throughout the realm in the name of Majesty itself. The ministers of the ruling power have stamped the effigy of its representative on the new silver coin, the florin, without the ancient assertion that the right is held *Dei gratia*! Last year we heard much talk in Frankfurt and Berlin about this same style “By the grace of God,” but that English ministers should have waived the high traditions and acknowledgments of divine right by a mere “order,” without discussion in parliament or appeal to the people, is what the lovers of old formulae cannot patiently accept. The omission furnishes a new topic for after-dinner speeches. “Old men and beldames”—but not exactly in the streets—“do prophesy upon it dangerously.” The *Globe* asks pleasantly if *tenth* will be taken in a coin not consecrated by the ancient form? The ingenious men who can brew storms in tea-pots, and the timid ones who have a faculty for finding revolutions folded in rose-buds, have dim visions of a coming republic in a two-shilling piece shorn of its legend. All the old phylacteries are in danger. Who shall guarantee the sempiternity of that high conjuration the *Honi soit qui mal y pense*? The subject is a dangerous one—and not for our handling. We but “chronicle” the “small beer” which the quidnuncs have been brewing.

The following extract from a letter dated Alexandria, August 4th, has been communicated to us, and may amuse some of our readers.—“Mr. Felice Watmass, who was lately Secretary to the Egyptian Society in Cairo, before his departure for Jerusalem put into my hands a manuscript dated 1828, and pagged 1 to 131,—but pages 20 to 32, and 96 to 107, inclusive, are missing. It is addressed in the French language by Jeremy Bentham to Mehemet Ali; urging him to declare himself independent of the Porte,—to give the Egyptians a Constitution of Mr. Bentham's own making,—and to send Abbass Pacha to England to be instructed by him. There are, besides, nine pages in which he instructs Mehemet Ali upon the following heads:—‘États des parties en Angleterre—Distribution des pouvoirs du Gouvernement—Les Loix,’—&c. Everything is painted in colours so black (‘car le pillage est universel’), that I am not surprised at Mehemet Ali keeping Abbass Pacha at home. Mr. Watmass found these documents among the papers of his defunct father, who was dragoman to the Pacha.” The writer adds that Mr. Watmass is willing to dispose of these manuscripts.

The Paris papers announce the death of M. Joseph Théodore Richomme the engraver, Member of the Institute.

The French Scientific Congress has just held its annual meeting at Rennes. We suppose the French public of the Revolution take little interest in such matters,—for we have seen no published account of the proceedings of the Congress.—The next meeting will be held at Bourges.

The Report, just out, of the Lancashire and Cheshire associated Mechanics' Institutions is not very encouraging to the friends of education for the people. Few of these institutions in the counties reported upon can be said to flourish. Most of them maintain a death struggle of which the end cannot be doubtful—some are expiring while we write—many are in debt, and the chief of them in point of pretension and numerical strength have expended during the year more money than they received. Nor is the moral condition better than

the material. The best books which their scanty libraries contain are not read: novels and works of amusement alone leave the shelves. A fact quoted by Mr. Hogg, the secretary, is indicative of the value of these libraries—the great number of books issued—is suggestive to us of other conclusions. A book worth reading is not read through in a day—particularly a mechanic's reading day. The frequency of the changes denotes a habit of light and superficial reading rather than one of intellectual activity. Another fact indicating decline is, the character of the lectures sought after. At first, these institutions contemplated having session-lectures, thirty or forty in number on the same subject, extending over half-a-year—as at Universities. These would no longer, it is said, be listened to. Few of the Institutions now engage a lecturer for a course of more than two lectures. Instead of a series gradually unfolding a great subject, no three lectures are now given on consecutive sciences or arts. Variety, not connexion, of topics is the point aimed at:—in fact, amusement, not instruction. The reasons assigned for this decline of interest in sound and useful knowledge are painful to accept. Mr. Hogg seems to think the labouring classes dead to the importance of education—the higher orders to a great extent hostile or indifferent. Yet surely these are things to be overcome. The best argument against slavery was the fact adduced in favour of it—that “the slave was content with his condition.” It is the same with want of education. He is lo indeed who has no wish to rise—profoundly ignorant who has no desire for knowledge! The subject is one that needs all the zeal and patience of the good. We have no fear for the cause of education ultimately:—but the means? Unless some new principle of life be infused into them, we may reasonably conclude that the existence of Mechanics' Institutes is drawing to a period. This is the moral of the Lancashire and Cheshire Report.

The power of association is a spreading doctrine;—entering gradually into our social arrangements, and promising finally to effect a considerable change in the modes of English life. Here again the old saws and legends are being beaten out.—As one of the recent instances of the social application of this principle of association, we notice that the Bakers of the north-east of London are about to establish, for the use of members of their own craft, a sort of Club-home (making a new compound to express a new thing) on principles not unlike those on which the model lodging-houses in St. Giles's are founded. They purpose building a large house in the vicinity of King's Cross, containing from fifty to sixty bedrooms, in which the members of their guild will lodge,—at a charge of about 2s. each per week. The building is to be fitted up with warm and cold baths, the daily and weekly papers are to be taken in, and a small library of books of a useful and interesting kind, is to be formed. The inmates propose to live in the coffee-room, as at an hotel or a boarding-house: and a reading-room will be prepared for such as love society and the luxury of news. The whole cost of conducting the contemplated institution is calculated not to exceed three hundred pounds a year; the income will be something more, it is said,—leaving a considerable margin of profit for the speculator. It is believed that the Association for Improving the Dwelling-houses of the Industrious Classes will advance the money to erect the necessary premises.—There are worthy men gone to timely graves whose hair had they been so unfortunate as to live to this day, would have stood on end at facts like these:—and indeed there are certain wholesome traditions of English life which we do not see invaded by the new principle without something like doubt and reluctance. But these were kept at such a cost—so much of vice and misery grew under their sanction—that society at length rejects them as vain words and mockeries. Weary of the verbal impositions of the Past, the Age is trying for its own emancipation in new problems. It is well that they should be fully—and soberly—worked out.

DIORAMA, REGENT'S PARK.—NOW EXHIBITING, the VALLEY of ROSENLAUL, Bernese Oberland, with the effects of a Storm in the Alps; and the INTERIOR of the CHURCH of SANTA CROCE, at FLORENCE, with all the gradations of Light and Shade, from Noonday to Midnight.—N.B. The Grand Machine Organ, by Gray and Davison, will perform in both Pictures. Open from Ten till Five.

Open Daily from Eleven to Five, and every Evening, EXCEPT SATURDAY, from Seven till Half-past Ten.

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FINE-ART GOSSIP.—Prince Albert, our readers know, is working earnestly in favour of a “Great Exhibition of the Works of Industry in all Nations.” The manufacturers of Great Britain and Ireland have entered, we believe, heartily into the plan.—The *Journal of Design* for the present month gives a summary of what has been done in the matter. It appears from this, that the Prince ordered commissions to be prepared empowering Mr. Cole, Mr. F. Fuller, and Mr. J. Scott Russell “to travel through the manufacturing districts of the country in order to collect the opinions of the leading manufacturers, and further evidence in order that His Royal Highness might bring the results of such inquiry before Her Majesty's Government.” The Commission, with Mr. Digby Wyatt for its Secretary, has visited, or is visiting, our chief seats of manufactures with this view. “We have been favoured,” says the *Journal of Design*, “with a perusal of the minutes which the Prince directed Mr. Russell to keep; and, in accordance with what we are informed is the wish of His Royal Highness, we are privileged to state the general results. The Prince proposed that the Exhibition should consist of raw materials of all kinds, mineralogical, agricultural, &c.; of machinery and mechanical inventions; of the results of these, namely, manufactures; and lastly, of sculpture and plastic art generally; and that the Exhibition should be open to all nations. That portion of Hyde Park between the Kensington Drive and Rotten Row, which consists of about thirty acres of level ground, was considered to be an eligible site for the Exhibition. A second meeting of three of these gentlemen, at which the President of the Board of Trade was also present, was held by the Prince's command at Osborne on the 14th of July, when some of the general arrangements for giving effect to the plan were discussed. It was proposed that a Royal Commission should be appointed to arrange and conduct the Exhibition, to determine the nature of the prizes to be given away, and to take the responsibility of awarding the prizes. It was settled that the best way of raising the funds for the prizes, the building, &c., would be by public voluntary subscriptions, and that the Society of Arts, as an institution incorporated by Royal Charter, presented a useful machinery for organizing the means of raising such funds. It was proposed that one prize should be awarded as high as 5,000*l.*—and it was thought that perhaps the Queen might be induced to give away some of the prizes. But this subject and all its details will have to be investigated; and nothing, we believe, can be considered as determined on this point, except that an amount of 20,000*l.* will certainly be given away in prizes.”

The foundation stone of the Culloden Monument has been laid with masonic honours on Culloden Moor, near Inverness. The *Inverness Courier* thus describes the intended work.—“The monument, which is from the design of Mr. Mackenzie, of Elgin, is a gigantic cairn or artificial rock, the top of which will be accessible by flights of rustic steps and winding paths. Various spots will be so formed that tablets and small monuments to particular clans or individuals may at any time be erected; and in front it is proposed that a group of statuary should be placed. In this respect, however, everything depends upon the public. The subscriptions received will not complete the bare design, and the question of statuary is in the first place a question of money.” The monument, the journal in question goes on to say, will occupy the highest ground on the Moor of Culloden. The spot chosen for the site is that upon which the struggle took place which decided the fate of the day, and where the greatest carnage occurred. It is within the line occupied by the foremost rank of the Highland army, and close by the long trench, still green, where repose the bodies of the men who



fell in that struggle. A parchment accompanying the usual deposit of coins is inscribed as follows.—"The foundation stone of the Culloden monument—a monument raised by public subscription, and dedicated to the memory of the brave Highlanders who fell at Culloden on the 10th of April, 1746, fighting gallantly for a cause which they conscientiously believed to be a just one—was laid on the 19th of September, 1849, by William Anderson, R.W.M. of the St. John's Operative Mason Lodge of Ferres, in presence of the following bodies, who marched in procession from Inverness for that purpose. Thomas Mackenzie, Elgin, architect; John Hendry and John Batchen, Inverness, builders; Kennedy Macnab, secretary." Here follows a list of the subscriptions received up to this date, &c.

The French papers announce the death of the painter Charles Bellios.

A correspondent criticizes the new buildings at the British Museum after the following fashion.—"I fear the British Museum must be content with the solitary praise of Mr. Ruskin; for what with Mr. Fergusson's animadversions upon it and those of some other writers, the building has come in for an amount of most unenviable notice. In the *Civil Engineer* for the present month there is an article to show how great, and now irremediable, an oversight has been committed in adhering to the site of the original Montague House,—instead of taking advantage of the entire space of the ground by advancing nearly up to the line of the street and there forming a continuous façade (570 feet long), consisting of a colonnaded centre, retiring about fifty-six feet backward, between two wings. Each of these might have had a long gallery on the ground floor and others over; and as the lower galleries would have been best lighted from the north and the upper ones would have been lighted through their ceilings, windows would have been entirely got rid of towards the street. It was easy to judge beforehand, from one important architectural work in the metropolis, of the effect that would have been produced by so enclosing the Museum; because that is precisely the condition of the Bank of England,—the whole of whose exterior is a mere screen to a variety of courts and buildings behind it. It is on every side quite close up to the street itself,—and affords proof of the dignity arising from the absence of windows where it is intended to keep up a purely classical style. The central portico would have been connected with the body of the building by a spacious entrance hall; whereby the present open forecourt would have been divided into two lesser ones,—within which even additional rooms could have been erected when required. At present, that open forecourt constitutes nearly all the remaining space not built upon; so that the extended accommodation which might easily have been provided for by a little foresight, or by a little reconsideration of the plan just before the present façade was begun, has been now totally frustrated. A deaf ear was turned to the demand for exhibition of the model; and they who were deaf on that occasion seem now to have been blind also."

#### MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

MR. HENRY NICHOLLS'S DRAMATIC READINGS OF SHAKSPEARE every MONDAY EVENING, at BRAGGERS'S Rooms, Mortimer-street, Cavendish-square.—Monday next, Oct. 9, *Macbeth*; Oct. 15, *Othello*. To be followed by *King Lear*, *The Merchant of Venice*, *As You Like It*, *Henry VIII.*, *Much Ado About Nothing*, *Measure for Measure*, *Julius Cæsar*, &c. &c.—Admission, 1s.; Reserved Seats, 2s. Commence at Eight.

HAYMARKET.—The "little theatre" commences its season under peculiar auspices; numbering among its higher artists Mr. Macready, Mr. Wallack, Mrs. Warner, Mrs. Nisbett, and the Keans. The present week has been given to Mrs. Nisbett and Mr. Wallack. The lady appeared as the heroine on Monday in Mr. Knowles's comedy of 'The Love Chase,'—and on Tuesday in Mr. Bourcicault's five-act farce of 'London Assurance.' We missed Mrs. Glover in *Widow Green*, and her place was but indifferently supplied by Mrs. Clifford. Miss Jane Mordaunt's performance of *Lydia* was excellent. On Wednesday, 'Much Ado about Nothing' was reproduced.—Mr. Wallack being the *Benedict* and Mrs. Nisbett the *Beatrice*. The former was well received. Beatrice in the hands of the latter is not exactly the character that Shakspeare drew.—The houses were good.

SADLER'S WELLS.—An overflowing audience was attracted to this theatre on Monday to witness the revival of 'Othello.' The part is one in which Mr. Phelps originally won his laurels in London. On the present occasion he performed it with elaborate care—and was very successful in impressing his audience with the various passions of the part. His third act was highly finished. The part of *Desdemona* was performed by a *débutante*, Miss Aldridge; who in a pleasing person and gentle voice has some of the requisites for the character. But she misconceived more than one of the situations—and ran into divers extravagances which will require much discipline to correct. She has in her manifest elements of success,—and, well drilled, will probably in the course of a few months prove to be an acquisition. We have much hope of her—and therefore trust that she may meet with indulgence in the mean time. *Cassio* was undertaken by Mr. Dickinson, and *Emilia* by Miss Glyn; both for the first time at this theatre—the latter for the first time anywhere. We have been so accustomed to draw our notion of the stage *Cassio* from Mr. Charles Kemble's manly and generous embodiment, that perhaps we are scarcely unprejudiced critics on Mr. Dickinson's version—and we are therefore willing to come to some compromise of opinion respecting it. We admit his performance to have been on the whole a respectable, though not to us a satisfactory, attempt. Miss Glyn's *Emilia* was a judicious performance. The more violent parts of the character were skillfully toned down; her great efforts being reserved for the last scene. In this, Miss Glyn introduced a novelty of effect. Having been wounded by her husband, she dies in the arms of the attendants, instead of being, as usual, led out dying:—a difficult situation, but executed with fine taste. On the conclusion of the tragedy, all the principal performers were called before the curtain.

MARYLEBONE.—On Monday, Mr. Oxenford's translation of the French tragedy of 'Virginia' was reproduced; with Mr. Davenport and Mrs. Mowatt in the Roman father and daughter,—as last season. The character of *Fausta*, the high priestess, was performed by Mrs. Newberry,—who made her first appearance in it on these boards.

SURREY.—On Tuesday, Mr. Justice Talfourd's tragedy of 'Glencoe' was revived at this theatre. The management here have shown a decided disposition to prefer the modern to the Elizabethan drama; and in this, for the sake of variety, they are probably proceeding judiciously. There was, at any rate, a crowded and attentive audience; who manifested sympathy for and appreciation of the poetic beauties with which the dialogue of this drama abounds. Mr. Creswick was, of course, the hero of the evening,—and he gave to these due elaboration. One merit of this actor's style lies in his perception of the poetic. In the various scenes with Helen, with the hero's mother, and with his brother, there is much scope for both passion and declamation; and in both Mr. Creswick commanded applause. Madame Ponisi was the heroine; and she brought out several of the more refined touches of sentiment in her part with considerable delicacy. The drama was in all respects well mounted and efficiently acted. The curtain fell with unanimous applause.

MUSICAL AND DRAMATIC GOSSIP.—We perceive that the *Wednesday Concerts* are to recommence at Exeter Hall on the 24th of October. Much is it to be wished that in resuming them their manager, Mr. Stammers, may amend the mistakes which last season compelled us to keep aloof from the chorus of their praises. We recall these in a spirit neither teasing nor tautologous. The selections were calculated to keep down the taste of English audiences. We need but turn to an advertising column of the *Times* to see what "the national song" has come to. The 'Pretty Sallys' and 'Saucy Kates,' and other naval or Arcadian ditties of old Vauxhall were poor and trashy enough, even in their day (which was before the level of our knowledge had been raised by such commerce with the Continent as we have since enjoyed). Yet they had more of the stamen of true poetry—more of "the muscle" of healthy music—than the tribe of lyrics (!) to which 'Pray do,' answered by 'I would rather not,' and 'Get away' with its antagonistic 'I'm coming,' belong.

Then, as to the manner of performance. It "needed no ghost" to assure the practised listener that due rehearsal there had not been; even if corroborative evidence were not at the service of any one choosing to inquire of the vocalists who appeared at the *Wednesday Concerts*. Keeping firm to these two points of objection,—the pretext of popularity appealed to in deprecation of censure was always felt by us to be an additional grievance rather than a palliative. There has been ample time during the recess to devise corrective measures; and with the hope that this may have been wisely and thoroughly done, we await the commencement of the new series. Let us once more repeat an old caution:—let every singer who is engaged recollect that in proportion as he sinks his style, whether as regards choice of song or manner of singing, inasmuch does he adjoin the establishment of an English opera,—the matter of matters so eagerly desired by every native artist.

The Sacred Harmonic Society will not resume its performances till November. Having now entirely re-established itself, we wish to be allowed to compliment it on enterprise as well as on execution. The choral music of Sebastian Bach is still untouched. We wish that we could hear of some good chamber concerts to enliven the dreary months of winter. They are cruelly thrust against more showy entertainments in "the thick" of the season, and hence must be overlooked by many of those who are neither omnivorous nor ubiquitous.

The North of England journals make favourable mention of Mdlle. Paltoni; the daughter of the Italian gentleman who some years ago was a useful member of a provincial opera company,—and who, we believe, is resident at Manchester. She is said to be preparing herself for English opera.

Letters from Ems apprise us that Mdlle. Lind has, at length, quitted the Rhineland for Stockholm, where it is her intention to pass the winter.—We learn from the same source that Mr. Lumley recently appeared at Ems, with a view to inducing her to engage herself to his theatre for the next season; but that Mdlle. Lind declined all proposals made by the London manager. Judging by the past, we should be justified in deducing from these rumours the certain assurance of the lady's reappearance in the Haymarket. In this every frequenter of Her Majesty's Theatre will have great cause to rejoice; more especially if Mdlle. Lind shall return with any additions to her repertory. It would be charming and opportune, for instance, if she could lure M. Meyerbeer and her management into worthily giving 'Le Camp de Silesie';—but the composer, it is said, has put that opera "under lock and key" for alterations, and may possibly even produce it at the *Opéra Comique* of Paris.—The Vienna journals announce the death of the celebrated composer of waltzes, Herr Strauss, the father,—Director of the Court Balls in the Austrian capital.—M. Roger has been singing in German at the opera-houses of Germany with great success.—M. Millet, by Parisian paragraphs called a "famous composer," has gone to New York to assist in the direction or discipline of the Italian Opera in that city.—We believe that M. Vivier is occupied in writing a one-act work (by way of *coup d'essai*) for the *Opéra Comique* of Paris; and shall be more than usually disappointed if, when finished, it does not prove to have a character and promise far different from the generality of similar productions. There is in him, we repeat, the material for a new composer.

A new and original piece in three acts is announced as being in rehearsal at the Surrey Theatre. It is a poetico-domestic drama,—partly in verse and partly in prose; and is the united production of Mr. Westland Marston and Mr. Bayle Bernard.

#### MISCELLANEA

Fall of Manna.—The following letter appears in the *Gardeners' Chronicle*, and is dated Erzerroom, July 2, 1849:—

Two months ago a report was current in Erzerroom that a miraculous fall of an edible substance had occurred near Byzid; but as the simplest facts are often greatly distorted and exaggerated in this country, and the most unubiquitous falsehoods circulated, in connexion with anything of unusual occurrence, the European residents here were not inclined to listen credulously to the accounts of this "wonderful fall of bread from heaven." The report, however, instead of being soon forgotten, gained daily more ground, specimens of the substance were brought hither, and travellers from Byzid bore testimony to the fact of several

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showers of these lichens having taken place. Finding that there was some foundation for this phenomenon, I thought that the matter was deserving of investigation, and that you would be interested in knowing it. I therefore applied to Dr. Heing, the sanitary physician at Byazid (the only European residing there), to furnish me with information, which I elicited by means of a series of questions. It is the result of these inquiries which I now have the pleasure of submitting to your notice. About the 18th or 20th of April last, at a period when there had been, for a whole fortnight, very rainy weather, with strong winds from the E.E. and E.S.E., the attention of the shepherds and villagers frequenting the country near Byazid was attracted by the sudden appearance, in several localities, of a species of lichen scattered from five to ten miles each in circumference, measuring from five to ten miles each in circumference. Dr. Heing describes two of these spots as follows:—  
—One is situated three miles east of Byazid, behind a range of rocky mountains stretching from the north gradually towards the south-east. The other is five miles to the south of Byazid, near a similar range of rocks, running in the above-named direction. It is remarkable that no one had ever before observed these lichens in the neighbourhood, not even the shepherds, who often pasture their flocks on the crags and in almost inaccessible places; and Dr. Heing, who has been on Mount Ararat (which is close to Byazid), and who appears to have a taste for rambling over mountains, says he has never met with any. What seems to confirm the assertion that these products were not known previous to their unaccountable appearance is, that last year the crops were greatly injured by locusts, and a famine threatened; and had the substance been known to exist anywhere in the vicinity, it would most assuredly have been eagerly sought after and collected last autumn, when the price of wheat had risen to more than double its usual value. A similar phenomenon is said to have occurred at Byazid some years ago, when it is probable that the edible quality of these lichens became known to the natives; unless showers took place previous to that period, which I have not been able to ascertain. Supposing the lichens to have been blown off some adjoining inaccessible places, and in such great quantities, too, how is the rarity of the occurrence accounted for? and how is it that they covered such large tracts of country? No proof has been adduced of any one having seen the fungi fall; but as the first intelligence was brought by villagers who, early one morning, had observed the lichens strewn over a tract of ground where they had not observed any on the evening before, it is probable that the showers must have taken place during the night. In some localities, the one or the other kind of lichen alone was found; in others, the two species mixed. On the 19th of June, another quantity of lichen was discovered, and as the spot was a well-frequented one, it seems likely that the fall had occurred only a few days previously. From all accounts, the quantities collected have been very great. Dr. Heing says that a person could collect at the rate of 1 lb. in an hour, which, considering the lightness of the product, is a tolerable quantity. The substance is ground up with wheat and made into bread, or eaten simply in its raw natural state.

**Wool Building Materials.**—The erection of a locomotive in the Low Calton, Edinburgh, in which fire-brick alone is employed as the building material, instead of stone, has excited some interest among the inhabitants in that locality. The building, of which one story is nearly completed, is to consist of three flats, and the fire-brick is used in blocks of the size and appearance of hewn stone. The basement story is designed for a warehouse, the exterior being in the form of shops, and the front exhibits the elegance and finish of polished ashlar. The blocks are of large size, being upon an average two feet in length by fourteen inches deep; but those employed in the construction of the other parts of the building are smaller, ranging from 18 to 20 inches long by 6½ to 9 inches square. The principal advantage in the use of fire-brick is its resistance to fire and damp; but the expense, we believe, is greater than stone, from the heavy duty upon bricks. The building, however, will have a light and clean appearance, and the experiment is viewed with some interest.—*Edinburgh Weekly Register.*

**Maize in St. James's Park.**—I observe you have repeated from the *Times* a notice of the maize crop in the Park, falsely perpetuating an error. The writer says—"The stems throw out from the root upwards a succession of flag-like leaves; the stem terminating in a little tuft, from which spring the ears of corn, somewhat irregularly clustered, and in this instance apparently not heavily laden."—The writer evidently knows nothing of the plant he is describing; he mistakes the *maize* flowers—the panicles of which grow at the top of each plant, and are well known not to contain any grain—for the *female* flowers or pods of grain, which grow lower down, at the knots of the plant, covered with large sheaths of the upper leaves. The *stiles*, six or eight inches long, very numerous, and of a shining yellow or reddish colour, issue out of the sheaths, and hang down a long silken tassel from each pod. The notice would lead one to suppose that the maize in the Park was unproductive; whereas the grain itself is to be looked for in ears of corn growing lower down on the stem. I am, &c. ZEA.

To CORRESPONDENTS.—J. P. A.—W. W.—J. R.—R. H.—P. R. A.—W. A.—R. C. S.—Tyro.—T. F.—C. S. B.—received. J. D. A.—We have forwarded this correspondent's letter to the proper quarter.

# NINETEENTH MEETING OF THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE.

[From our own Correspondents.]

TUESDAY.

## SECTION A.—MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SCIENCE.

'Further Contributions to Anemometry,' by Prof. PHILLIPS.—Referring to his former reports on this subject [see *Ath.* No. 987, p. 994, and No. 1068, p. 887], the author said that his researches into the force and velocity of wind have been directed to the completion of a method of wind registration which should be independent of mechanical movements, momentum and friction. He wished to register the wind by one of the effects of the displacement of its molecules, not the movement of its mass. For this purpose only one method has occurred to him as sufficiently applicable, viz., the evaporation of a liquid. He had experimented on water, saline solutions and alcoholic mixtures, and he found reason to think that with either of these liquids an instrument really indicating the movement of wind by the registration of the evaporation which the wind causes is producible. Such an instrument need occupy but a very small space, and will have the desirable quality of being most accurate in those very low velocities of wind which elude entirely Lind's Anemometer and are scarcely sensible by any registering machinery. It will be remembered that for the interpretation of the register of evaporation with a register of wind velocity, it was necessary first to correct for the hygrometric state of the air. This being done, the cooling power of wind was found by experiment to be nearly as the square root of its velocity. In this experimental result Prof. Phillips was induced to place confidence, because it appeared to represent and flow naturally from what may be thought the true physical action of the moving air. Having lately occasion to examine extensively and carefully into the amount of air which passes (or is made to pass) through the rarefied passages of collieries, where the currents are sometimes so slow that machine anemometers even of a most delicate description are insensible to the movement of the air—where even the miner's candle affords but a rude guess, and where the situation is such that smoke or the powder-flask cannot be appealed to—he was happy to find that the problem was perfectly and easily solved by noting the cooling power of the current. For this purpose a registering or integrating anemometer is not required. The currents underground are steady, and required only an anemoscope or indicator of the momentary velocity. Evaporation from the wet bulb may therefore be abandoned; the common thermometer with its bulb clear of the frame will answer the purpose of experiment, in every conceivable instance.\*

'On an improved Integrating Anemometer, and Notices of Five Years' Observations at Edinburgh, Wrottesley, and Lloyd's,' by Mr. F. OSLER.—Mr. Osler first stated that from an aggregate of upwards of 50,000 additional hourly observations he had been enabled to test the accuracy of the report he brought forward in Glasgow respecting the hourly forces of the wind and their coincidence with the curves of temperature; and that the result was highly satisfactory, being almost precisely similar to that recorded in the report just alluded to,—the wind rising with the temperature with great regularity. The curve of temperature for each season corresponded with the curve of force; but from these observations it would appear that the period of mean force in the evening took place about half an hour before that of mean temperature,—showing that the motion of the air declines more rapidly than the temperature. The whole of the stations comprise an aggregate of nearly 200,000 hourly observations, all of which were tabulated and reduced. The direction of the wind for each hour of the day, together with its force, was first tabulated; and from this an abstract was obtained, giving the total force and direction for every day. In reviewing the Wrottesley observations, which were carried out more fully than the rest, Mr. Osler called attention to the fact of disturbances in the currents of the atmosphere taking

place at certain and apparently regular intervals. A comparative calm is followed by considerable disturbances;—these calms and movements appear to be periodical. It was possible that observations for a longer time might neutralize these periods, and by shifting their times only leave us with the knowledge that intermittent pulses do not occur; but the regularity of some led him to hope that such is not the case, and that a law of periodicity might be traced even in this variable climate. From six years' records at Wrottesley the average periods of greatest movement in the aerial currents took place towards the end of January, the middle and end of March, the end of April, the early part of June, a short time after the middle of October, about the 20th of November, and the first week in December,—the periods of greatest calm occurred about the middle of January, about the 17th of June, and about the 14th of November. There were many other maxima and minima; but Mr. Osler thought it desirable to defer going more into detail respecting them until he had been able further to investigate the subject. On minutely examining the registers of the anemometers, two kinds of currents are observed,—the one moving very regularly and with great steadiness, the other in larger pulses or waves, causing the vane to oscillate over a considerable arc. One he regarded as the air moving to fill up a void or deficiency,—the other flowing from an excess or from a portion of the atmosphere being put in motion and carried on by momentum previously acquired, causing great undulations in its motion, on which occasions the wind appears to have much more force than is really indicated by an instrument. The north winds generally showed less oscillation than those from the south points. While carrying on these observations, Mr. Osler's attention had occasionally been directed to particular storms; and he had applied to them the rotatory theory set forth by Col. Reid, in the main principles of which he fully agreed; but he considered that a rotating circle would not explain all the changes that occur. He was of opinion that the rotating portion is smaller than has usually been assumed, and that the air approaches this circle or vortex in spiral lines,—that sometimes this rotating circle is not in contact with the earth, in which case the lower current will be more in the direction of radial lines,—that the air in advance of a storm is not put into such rapid motion in consequence of the movement forward of the storm itself,—while for the same reason the action in the rear of the storm is increased. Mr. Osler then exhibited and described his improved integrating anemometer.

'On the Temperature of the British Isles, and its Influence on the Distribution of Plants,' by M. A. PETERMANN.—The author adverted to the climate of Western Europe as being the mildest comparatively of all countries in a similar latitude, and showed that a temperate zone, limited by the isothermals of 70° and 30° (Fahr.), extended in

North America from 30° to 51° N. lat.

Asia " 30 " 50 "

Europe " 30 " 71 "

The British Isles are situated almost in the centre of this zone. To show the main features of their temperature, the author had constructed, on a large diagram, isothermals of the hottest and coldest months (July and January) in the year, based on the observations of about seventy places. The most striking feature in the January isothermals is their general direction from north to south instead of from west to east, inferring the greatest cold not in the north but in the east. Between the Shetland Islands and the southern coast of England (except Cornwall and Devon) there is no difference in the winter temperature, but between the Eastern Coasts of England and the Western Coasts of Ireland the difference amounts to about 10°, the former being at an average of 35°, the latter probably 45°. The coldest portion of Britain extends from the Naze to the Firth of Forth, comprising to the west all the Pennine chain; in this district an average temperature of 35° to 36° prevails. On the Continent the January temperature becomes lower in going eastward, precisely in the same ratio as in the British Isles, and the Isothermal of 28° extends as far west as the meridian of Göttingen and Hanover. In Scandinavia the temperature decreases very suddenly, owing to the snow-clad

\* It appears from Prof. Forbes's 'Report on Meteorology' to the British Association in 1832, that the idea of employing a thermometer for indicating the velocity of wind was entertained by Prof. Leslie.



mountain masses which project in a high rampart on the western coasts; the difference between Bergen and Christiania, two places in about the same latitude, distant from each other 190 miles, amounts to as much as  $14^{\circ}$ , the former being  $35^{\circ}0$ , the latter  $20^{\circ}8$ . The author then proceeded to allude to general and local causes by which these January isotherms are regulated. The average direction of the isotherms of the hottest month (July) is from south-west to north-east. The highest summer temperature in the British Isles—indicated by the isothermal of  $64^{\circ}$ —occurs in the central portion of the south coast of England, the lowest in the north-west part of Scotland, and the difference appears to be at least  $10^{\circ}$ , while the difference between the western and eastern coasts is much less. The isothermal of  $62^{\circ}$  extends to Lincoln, Birmingham, and the southernmost portions of Wales. All Ireland, Wales, northern part of England and Scotland, to the foot of the Highlands, lie between the isotherms of  $62^{\circ}$  and  $60^{\circ}$ . North of the Highlands the temperature is very considerably lower, Inverness having only  $55^{\circ}7$ . By comparing the British Isles with parts of the Continent in the same latitude, we find in that of Dublin which has  $61^{\circ}5$ , at the Dutch shores  $64^{\circ}$ , at Hamburg  $65^{\circ}$ . In the latitude of Inverness ( $55^{\circ}7$  temp.), Frederikshaven in Denmark  $61^{\circ}9$ , Göteborg in Sweden  $63^{\circ}2$ ,—between this latter place and Inverness the distance is 600 English miles. The author then alluded to the influence of temperature on the distribution of plants, the districts of which he had found to be strikingly corroborative with the general correctness of his isotherms; (for his botanical observations he was greatly indebted to H. C. Watson, Esq., author of the 'Cybele Britannica.') There are altogether a good number of plants in Britain which botanists are accustomed to regard as western species, being frequently scattered along the western counties, from Cornwall to Scotland, without passing into the eastern counties, unless at the southern or northern extremities of Britain. Compared with each other, these western species present much difference in respect to the area or space of Britain over which they are distributed respectively. But they correspond in the negative peculiarity of being absent from that part of Britain which extends between the Firth of Forth and the Lincolnshire Wash, and mostly absent from the whole eastern side of the island between the Thames and Murray Firth. This class of plants correspond in their districts with the January isotherms. Other plants less impatient of a cold winter, but requiring a higher summer temperature, are found to run parallel with the July isotherms. A great number of species, and the districts where they occur, were named. Among the more important plants, being limited by summer isotherms, is the vine, the northern limit of which is found to be between the July isotherms of  $66^{\circ}$  and  $67^{\circ}$ . In the Valley of the Seine it attains its highest latitude between Louvier and Andelys, in about  $49^{\circ}$  north lat., but further east, near Berlin, it reaches nearly  $52^{\circ}$ , a latitude corresponding with that of Norwich, Birmingham, and Limerick. The author, in concluding his observations, expressed the hope to see this subject further investigated; especially to see the net of meteorological stations over the British Isles extended and completed,—as all Ireland and Wales, as well as the north-western part of Scotland, exhibited as yet great blanks on an isothermal map.

'On Meteorological Observations made at Kaafjord, near Alten, in Western Finmark, and at Christiania, in Norway,' by Dr. LEE.

'On Meteorology considered chiefly in relation to Agriculture,' by the Rev. Dr. THOMSON.—This was an essay enforcing the importance of meteorological knowledge to those engaged in agricultural pursuits, with numerous suggestions as to courses of observation which it would be desirable to institute; but it contained nothing that was very new.

'On Prof. Quetelet's Investigations relating to the Electricity of the Atmosphere, made with Peltier's Electrometer,' by Prof. WHEATSTONE.—Of all the meteorological conditions of the atmosphere, its electrical state is perhaps among the most important. Yet in the various observations established in different parts of the world in connexion with the great magnetic inquiry now in progress, and in the establishment of which the British Association has taken so prominent a part, no provision has been made for

regular observations relating to this important subject. Thus, while we possess a most valuable accumulation of periodical records—made with great accuracy and regularity at widely different points of the earth's surface—relating to the magnetism of the earth, and to the barometric, thermometric, hygrometric, and anemometric conditions of the atmosphere, we have no simultaneous electrical observations with which to compare them. This has arisen from the want of a simple and efficient instrument by which such observations could be made. The most valuable results which have hitherto been obtained have been made with fixed electric apparatus. That established at the Observatory of the British Association at Kew, under the superintendence of Mr. Ronalds, and in which he has introduced so many important improvements, which render it, in perfectness of insulation and the comparability of its attached electrometers, superior to any hitherto erected, will no doubt, when the observations made at the establishment during the past five years are reduced and discussed, as is now being done by Mr. Birt, yield valuable results. Still such apparatus are too costly, and require too many precautions in their establishment and manipulation, to be recommended for general use. Meteorologists will, therefore, learn with satisfaction that this deficiency is now supplied by the late M. Peltier's induction electrometer,—a portable instrument, simple in its construction, certain in its results, and of which any number may be made perfectly comparable with each other.

'On Observations of the Barometer and Thermometer, made during several Ascents in Balloons,' by Mr. RUSH.—We quote the following as general results.

Temperature of the Upper Regions of the Air, corresponding to certain Barometrical Heights, as observed by George Rush, Esq. during five Balloon Ascents.—

Barometer.	Thermometer.	Thermometer.	Thermometer.	Thermometer.	Thermometer.	Altitude in Feet.
In.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	
30.52	..	..	60	..	74	
..22	..	..	..	..	..	
..00	60	66	..	..	..	
29.09	..	..	66	..	..	
..00	..	..	60	..	63	
28.8	..	..	..	66	..	
27.7	..	..	58	..	65 51	
26.6	..	..	55	..	64 50	
25.5	..	..	52	..	63	
24.4	..	..	48	..	61	
23.30	28	..	46	..	61	6,553 for $32^{\circ}$ fall.
23.3	..	56	..	..	..	
22.40	..	..	54	..	..	
22.2	..	..	43	..	54	
21.1	53	40	..	52	46	
20.0	..	..	36	..	52	
19.9	..	46	22	35	46	13,044 for $20^{\circ}$ fall.
18.8	..	42	30	..	..	
17.7	..	39	25	..	..	
16.6	..	35	20	..	..	
15.5	..	25	18	..	..	
14.70	..	25	..	..	..	19,303 for $41^{\circ}$ fall.
..30	..	18	18	..	..	20,352 for $41^{\circ}$ fall.

It has been determined by M. Gay-Lussac, from observations made by him during a balloon ascent, in which it is stated that at the temperature of  $16^{\circ}$  Fahr. he attained an altitude of 21,735 feet, the temperature at starting having been  $88^{\circ}$ , that it therefore decreases at the rate of  $1^{\circ}$  for 352 feet of elevation.

'Meteorological Observations made at Huggate, Yorkshire,' by the Rev. T. RANKIN.

'On a singular Atmospheric Wave, in February, 1849,' by the Rev. T. RANKIN.

'On a Phosphoric Phenomenon in a Pond at Huggate, on June 11th, 1849,' by the Rev. T. RANKIN.—This communication described minutely, with all the attendant circumstances of weather, the state of the barometer and thermometers dry and wet, a violent explosion of inflammable gas which took place on the above day, accompanied with smoke, a great noise, and rumbling concussion, such as to alarm all the inhabitants of the village. The explosion of the gas was propagated along the pond from N.W. to S.E. Into this pond the refuse of the village had been for ages draining, and it was a common receptacle for the dead bodies of various animals.

'On Magnetized Brass,' by the Rev. T. RANKIN.—This communication was for the purpose of recording the fact that Mr. Rankin had found the northern half of a brazen meridian of a celestial globe to be so

strongly magnetic as to deflect a small needle placed near it so much as eight points from its true direction: while the southern part of it seemed to be totally free from magnetism.

'On a Specimen of Incombustible Cloth for the Dresses of Ladies and Children, manufactured in Dundee by Mr. Latts,' by Sir D. BREWSTER.—This cloth of printed calico, of which several specimens were exhibited, was prepared by immersion in phosphate of magnesia. When inflamed it soon went out without the flame spreading; and Sir David stated that a spark or red coal would not ignite it.

'On the Inflection of Light,'—A communication from Lord BROUGHAM, was read by Sir D. BREWSTER.—His Lordship's experiments were made at Cannes in Provence by an apparatus, executed by M. Sollet of Paris, and with the aid of a heliostat for fixing the sunbeam in one position during the day. The results obtained by Lord Brougham are—that when a pencil of divergent light has suffered inflection by a metallic or any other edge, of any form or substance, it exhibits different properties on its different sides when submitted to the action of a second inflecting edge.

'On an Improved Photographic Camera,' by Sir D. BREWSTER.—The improvement was, to find the place of the focus of the object-glass not by a piece of ground glass as in the common method, but by an eyepiece with a properly graduated adjusting power. By this contrivance the plate or paper on which the photographic drawing was to be formed could be placed in focus much more accurately; and besides, the instrument when reversed formed an excellent telescope.

Mr. RONALDS said he had for several years used this method of placing his paper in focus, at the Kew Observatory.—Sir D. BREWSTER said, he was not of course aware that any other person had used this method, but supposed it entirely his own invention. One of the advantages of the Association was in this way to inform observers of what others had been doing.

'On Circular Crystals,' by Sir D. BREWSTER.—The author gave a brief notice of his experiments. Mr. Fox Talbot first studied the phenomena of this class of crystals as exhibited on those produced by a mixture of borax and phosphoric acid; and Sir D. Brewster exhibited drawings of this phenomenon which had been presented to him by Mr. Fox Talbot. In the course of his own inquiries he discovered a large number of bodies which yielded circular crystals, which he divided into two classes, *positive* and *negative*, including oil of mace (the phenomena of which he had previously described in the *Phil. Trans.* for 1814), animal fat, wax, &c., in which it is very difficult to distinguish circular from quaquaversal polarisation.

'On Irradiation,' by the Rev. Prof. POWELL.—The phenomenon known by the name of Irradiation is best exhibited by the method of M. Plateau, which forms the basis of all the author's experiments; and which consists of a card or lamina cut so that a long parallelogram has one half cut out and the other left, the portions at the sides being cut away. Thus the effect is seen doubled either by transmitted or reflected light. It is well established that the effect increases with the intensity of the light. It is also evident that it decreases rapidly towards the edge of the enlarged surface. The effect has been ascribed by most writers to a peculiar kind of physiological affection of the retina. But (allowing for the effect of dazzling, contrast, &c.) the author has shown that this is not the case, since exactly the same effect is produced in an artificial eye, or camera obscura. The effect has also been tried photographically, in some cases, and especially in direct sun-light, with perfect success; in others without effect. But the most effective photographic rays are not the most illuminating, and may therefore not be equally subject to this modification. These phenomena appear to be simply cases of the enlarged focal image of a luminous point, which is a well-known result both of theory as investigated by Mr. Airy,\* and of observations as seen in the discs of fixed stars under contracted apertures. The effect on the eye is diminished, and may be totally destroyed by the intervention of a lens, even in the brightest lights. This



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is explained by the diminution of intensity in proportion to the superficial magnification, which is most effective at the edges. In telescopes there is a twofold effect of this kind, one at the focus of the eye, another at that of the object-glass. The former may be neutralized by the magnification of the eye-piece. The author has tried many experiments on the image of a card, cut as above, seen in a telescope under apertures of various degrees of contraction, which appear to accord closely with the phenomena of "the diffraction of the object-glass." It also follows that there must be a limit to the increase of the enlargement of the image, dependent on the diminution of light when the aperture is contracted beyond a certain point, which will vary in each individual instrument. The author suggests a method of measuring the amount of irradiation under any given conditions of light by viewing and measuring micrometrically in a telescope the image of a card cut as above, under the given light, placed at the focus of an object-glass opposite to that of the telescope, and connected with it by a tube. Theoretically, irradiation would explain those singular phenomena seen in eclipses and transits of the planets, of the connexion of the edge of the dark disc by *beads or threads* to that of the sun: as also to the apparent projection of a star on the *bright limb* of the moon, by simply overlapping the star from irradiation. But the difficulty in all these phenomena is their appearance in some cases and not in others under circumstances apparently similar.

'On the Strength and Elasticity of Stone and Timber,' by Prof. HODGKINSON.—The Professor said that as he had been induced to give a lengthened communication to the Mechanical Section, he should not do more at present than exhibit the tabulated results of a laborious set of experiments on this practical subject.

'On Meteorological Phenomena observed in India from January to May, 1849,' by Dr. BUIST, communicated by Col. SYKES.—The papers comprised pressure curves of the barometer for five years at Bombay, four years at Madras, and four years at Calcutta. A map of the occurrence of storms at various places in India, between the 19th and 25th of April, 1849. Corresponding observations at various places during storms in India on the 15th and 22nd of January; the same between the 20th and 23rd of February, and the 1st and 3rd of May. The pressure of Papers in the Section disabled Col. Sykes from giving more than a running commentary upon the different phenomena. He called the attention of the Section to the general uniformity of the several pressure curves at the three Presidencies in India; the maximum pressure being in December or January and the minimum pressure in June or July. The *absolute* height of the barometer, however, was different in different years; but the gradual descent of the curve from January to June, and ascent from June to January, was nearly interrupted, excepting at Bombay in the months of September and October 1845 and 1846, in the months of August and September at Madras in 1841, and in November and December 1843 and 1844. At Calcutta the descent and ascent of the curves did not show any interruption; but the barometer appeared to have a greater annual range at Calcutta than at Bombay or Madras. Col. Sykes called attention to the fact that these curves were not affected by the passage of the sun twice annually over the places of observation, nor by the occurrence of the monsoon at Calcutta and Bombay in June, and at Madras in October. The map of storms between the 19th and 25th April showed that they occurred almost simultaneously in the Punjab near Wuzerabad, at Loodiana, at Simla, Delhi, Calpa, Alahabad, Calcutta, Bombay, Belgium, Madras, and down the coast to Tranquebar, at Mangalore and down the Malabar coast to Cochin, and on the western side of Ceylon. Accompanying this map Dr. Buist gave curves of horary oscillations from the 19th to the 25th of April, at Bombay, Madras, Aden, Calcutta, Lucknow and Mangalore; and at none of these places were the daily oscillations of the atmosphere, with their two maxima and two minima, in the slightest degree interrupted: and with reference to the uniformity of these horary oscillations and the annual maximum and minimum pressure, Col.

Sykes called the attention of the Section to the singular coincidence of these movements of the atmosphere, with similar movements at nearly the same hours and periods of the electric intensity, as determined by Mr. Birt in a paper recently read by him in the Section. In the storms of the 15th and 22nd of January, 20th to 23rd of February and 1st to 3rd of May, Dr. Buist gives the *simultaneous* reading of the maximum and minimum pressure of the barometer at various places. These readings show that the horary oscillation at places on the level of the sea may have different ranges; for instance, at Calcutta and Bombay on the 18th and 19th of February, the horary oscillation at Bombay is respectively 0.104 and 0.132, and at Calcutta 0.159 and 0.165. Carrying the comparison to Aden, the discrepancy is yet greater, 0.072 and 0.081. Similar instances occur at the other periods. In the meteorological crisis of the 15th of January, Dr. Buist considered that the storm was felt all over India; and amongst other places where it fell severely he mentions Lanlun in the Deccan, where, on the 14th of January 1849, there was a hail-storm, the hail-stones being lenticular, and from two to two and a half inches in diameter and weighing from one to two ounces each! On the whole Dr. Buist is of opinion that meteorological disturbances extend over very considerable areas. Dr. Buist's papers were not accompanied by tables of temperature or moisture.

'On some new Applications of Quaternions to Geometry,' by Sir W. HAMILTON.—This communication was too abstrusely mathematical to be made intelligible to ordinary readers.

'Report on recent Applications of the Wave Principle to the Practical Construction of Steam Vessels,' by Mr. J. SCOTT RUSSELL.—During the last year I have had more than one opportunity of applying the wave principle to the construction of steam vessels. There is one case, however, in which I have been able to apply it to practice under circumstances of greater complexity and difficulty than have ever occurred to me, and where it has been successful in overcoming difficulties to a greater extent and in a more decided manner than heretofore. During the last year a very difficult problem was proposed to me. It was this:—to build a steam vessel that should be fast without great length, a good sea boat without drawing much water, and to carry a great top weight and yet swim very light. Besides, this vessel was to be able to go backwards as well as forwards equally well; and, though a small boat, was to contain great accommodation. The problem is one to which the wave principle is far from seeming peculiarly applicable. In the first place, it is well known that the wave principle prescribes a different form of the bow from that of the stern, in order to obtain most speed with least cost of power. In the second place, it is known that a high speed requires on the wave system a very considerably greater length than was here allowed for the entrance of the vessel or the lines of the bow. It would therefore seem at first to be a case that would prove too difficult for the successful application of the wave system. There is one more feature in the case which gives it interest. At the same time the same problem was worked out by another party on another plan of construction, *not* on the wave principle. Another vessel was built under similar conditions, and furnished with engines of the best construction, made by one of the most eminent engineers in England. Both these vessels were built at the same time and tried under similar circumstances; therefore, here was a case in which the practical value of the wave principle has been brought to a test more direct and less questionable than any that was likely to have occurred—and, therefore, more important to be placed on the records of the British Association. The first question which will naturally occur to a member of this Association who recollects this principle will be this: How could you apply the wave principle in a vessel made to go equally well both ways? The first answer is ready—it is this, that the vessel cannot be made to go so fast as if designed with equal power to go only one way—seeing that in one case she would have a best possible bow and a best possible stern, and in the other case could have neither. The next point is this, that in both cases of bow and stern it was necessary to have a compromise. Each required to be in

turn bow and stern,—this was accomplished in the following manner.—If there be any point which has more forcibly struck me in the application of the wave principle than another, it is the flexibility of the wave principle,—the extent to which it admits of deviations from its strict rules without losing the benefit of its assistance. If it had unluckily been true of this system that it prescribed an exact mathematical solid in its three dimensions (like Newton's Solid of least Resistance), to which implicit adherence was imperative on pain of losing all the benefit proffered, then, indeed, the system would have been (like Newton's) of little use, from the fact that, from causes independent of resistance, ships cannot be solids of revolution, consistently with other qualities. The wave principle, on the contrary, possesses wonderful flexibility, first, from the circumstance of its prescribing lines in *one plane* only, and so leaving the other two dimensions in the hands of the practical constructor,—so that the sections of the vessel in one plane being given by the system, the sections in two others are at the service of the constructor. I had in this case to lay down for both ends of the vessel, that which is best for a bow and that which is best for a stern, at the given velocity. I had next to place relative values on bow resistance and stern resistance. I had next to single out from between those two lines one which, taken either as bow or stern, would deviate least from either, and so have least resistance on a mean of both directions. This, therefore, the wave principle did;—it gave the limits, and gave also the choice of a series of means all more or less suited to the purpose intended. I have now shortly to state the practical details by which this process was carried into effect and the results arrived at in consequence. The engines of the vessel, as well as the vessel, had to be constructed by my partner, Mr. A. Robinson, and myself, and we were enabled to adapt the one to the other with greater ease and certainty than in all likelihood we could have done had the engineer been separate from the ship-builder. In our case the engine was considered and made an actual portion of the ship and the ship of the engine. It will be fair, therefore, to deduct from the good effects attributed to the wave form of the ship such advantages as we possessed in building both engines and boilers and ship as one whole,—still it is fair to remember, on the other side, that the builders of the engines with which ours had to compete have been celebrated for their efficiency and for the large actual power they have developed, when compared with their nominal power. It should also be remembered that the builders opposed to us had previously built the fastest boats of their district. The results obtained are as follows:—Both vessels were about 150-55 ft. long; 22-22½ ft. beam; 4 ft. draft of water; 240 tons displacement; 150 horse-power, nominal; propelled by oscillating cylinders of 48 in. diameter, with the same proportion of stroke to paddle-wheel in both cases; and with only such differences as the engineers and ship-builders in each case considered likely to be most successful in carrying out the execution of their work to the best advantage. The terms prescribed to both builders by the engineer of the proprietors being identical, and with only such latitude as should not form an obstacle to whatever might seem best suited for obtaining greatest efficiency.

*Results of Experiments on Velocity with equal Power.*  
Wave vessel. Competing vessel.  
Speed ..... 1613 ..... 1503 miles per hour.  
Power ..... 203 ..... 199 velocity of wheel.  
Loss ..... 417 ..... 407 slip of wheel.

These are the results of accurate trials, at the measured mile, made both with the tide and against it. It is important to observe the amount of slip, as it serves to show that it was no deficiency of the engine power which caused the difference, both engines having gone at, as nearly as possible, the same speed. In order that the statement just given may not lead to false conclusions, it is necessary to state what were those minor differences in vessel and engine which each constructor adopted as tending to greater efficiency. The wave vessel had a flatter floor, and considerably squarer on the midship section, which was done for diminishing the depth of water as wanted for her use. In the other vessel, the consideration of draft of water was rejected or

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overlooked, and a finer midship section taken, although with a larger draft of water. In one case, also, the rudders were considered as part of the length of the vessel, and treated accordingly, and in the other case rejected from it. In the engines, also, although the diameters of the cylinders were identical, the stroke of the wave vessel was somewhat longer than the other, but the diminished effective diameter in the shorter stroke reduced them to nearly the same proportion. Thus far the experiments given only serve to prove that, practically, a considerably better result has been obtained by a steam-vessel built on the wave principle than by a competitor built under conditions that are perfectly identical, in so far as the public and the owners are concerned. But as regards the purely scientific question, I shall add two other experiments with the wave vessel, which furnish data of a more permanent and precise nature—one at a higher, the other at a lower velocity:—

*Experiments on the Wave Vessel.*

I. Velocity of vessel 15·14 miles an hour.

" of wheel 19·17 "

Slip 3·03 "

II. Velocity of vessel 16·50 "

" of wheel 21·20 "

Slip 4·70 "

The area of midship section immersed was 89·4 ft.

The surface of vessel immersed was 3080·0 ft.

The area of paddle-floats was 26·8 ft.

The conclusion which I deduce from these last experiments is this, that by means of the wave form one may obtain a form of which the resistance shall be represented by  $R = \frac{1}{20} A.H.S.$ , instead of  $R = \frac{1}{6}$

A.H.S., which is the lowest number given in any previous system of construction.—A being the area of midship section, H the height due to the velocity of the vessel, and S the weight of a cubic foot of water.

\* On Thunderstorms and the Formation of Hail,' by Mr. E. HIGHTON.—The author concluded from the flickering observed in a flash of lightning that concussions of the air caused by the electric discharge gave rise to the lightning and the rolling of the thunder. Hail he accounts for by the rapid descent of rain drops when first formed causing a rapid superficial evaporation, which freezes the rest of the globule,—this as it moves on grows larger by the cold condensing more vapour on its surface, of which a portion is also frozen by the continued evaporation, and this accretion goes on until it reaches the ground,—its final rapidity being the result of the constantly diminishing resistance of the air in proportion to its weight as it grows larger.

\* On an Approximate Mechanical Equivalent for the Auroral Action of the 17th and 18th of November, 1848,' by Mr. E. HIGHTON.—During this aurora the electric telegraph at the Watford tunnel was violently affected for many hours,—the climax occurring at 3 o'clock A.M. on the 18th. The wires extend in the tunnel about one mile and seventy yards, and are exposed outside the tunnel at both ends for three-quarters of a mile. The indicators frequently flew from one side to the other during the display, and often remained permanently deflected for a considerable time at once. On several occasions the electric current passing was sufficiently powerful to attract the moveable armature of the stationary electro-magnet of a bell apparatus, so as to allow the alarm to be sounded. Mr. Highton found by direct experiment afterwards that a pressure of one-third of an ounce was required to produce this effect. Then, by a simple calculation from the length and thickness of the wires, he calculates that 180 superficial feet of wire were exposed at the ends; and hence he comes to the conclusion that the auroral power, if similarly extended over a square mile of surface, would be equivalent to the lifting of seventy-five tons. But if it be contended that the entire wire in the tunnel was affected as well as that exposed outside, he then finds that the force over a square mile would be upwards of thirty-one tons.

\* An Account of various Disturbances of the Electric Telegraph in England in 1847 and 1848,' by Mr. E. HIGHTON.—An extensive detail of the deflexions of the needles caused at various stations and at various times by terrestrial or atmospheric influences on the wires, both by day and by night:—

—the results being frequently tabulated from minute to minute for hours together. These influences often entirely disturbed the regular transmission of signals,—frequently set the alarms ringing,—sometimes affected the down groups of needles and left the up groups quite undisturbed, then soon after affected the up groups but neglected the down ones,—sometimes affected the wires from a certain station to another distant one, leaving the rest of the same wires quite undisturbed.

\* On Magnetic Sounds,' by Mr. E. HIGHTON.—On the causes of the sounds frequently heard on the making and unmaking of electro-magnets, and on the transmission of electric currents.

\* On the Diurnal Variation of Magnetic Declination, and the Annual Variation of Magnetic Force,' by Mr. J. A. BROWN.—A discussion of four years' observations made in Sir Thomas M. Brisbane's Observatory, Makerstoun. The details of these results will be found in the next part of the 'Edinburgh Transactions.'

\* On some Recent Discussions of the Theory of Dispersion,' by Prof. POWELL.

The President exhibited a Universal Sun-dial, made by Mr. Sharp of Dublin.—It consists of a cylinder, set to the day of the month, and then elevated to the latitude. A thin plane of metal in the direction of its axis is then turned by a milled head below it till the shadow is a minimum, when a dial on the top shows the hours by one hand and the minutes by another. It appears that the time can be obtained by this to the precision of about three seconds.

The following names have been added to the list of the Committee in this Section as already given by us.

Prof. J. Forbes, Prof. Graves, Prof. D. Gray, Col. Reade, Prof. Wheatstone.

*Errata.*—In our report [ante, p. 963, col. 1, l. 2.], of Mr. Stokes's paper 'On the Determination of the Wave Length corresponding with any point of the Spectrum,' for "not," read most.

The name of Mr. W. H. Wallcut, who exhibited a new form of Galvanic Battery to Section B, as reported in our last number [p. 961], was there by a typographical mistake spelt "Walein."

SECTION D.—NATURAL HISTORY, INCLUDING PHYSIOLOGY.

Dr. LANKESTER gave a Report of the Proceedings of the Committee appointed by the Association for the Registration of the Periodic Phenomena of Plants and Animals.—Since the last Meeting, the Committee had completed tables for the registration of periodic phenomena, and sent them to upwards of fifty individuals who had expressed their willingness to observe.

Mr. AUSTEN exhibited a specimen of a Fern from the coal-measures of England, in which the fructification was quite evident. He did this, as the rarity of this occurrence had led him to suggest, at a previous sitting of the Section, that in these climates ferns of the coal-beds did not fructify, on account of the low temperature in which they existed.

\* On Fairy Rings, with Notes on some of the Edible Fungi by which they are caused,' by Prof. BUCKMAN.—After detailing at some length the experiments of Mr. Way on the composition of fungi forming the fairy rings, Prof. Buckman gave an account of the various species which formed fairy rings in the neighbourhood of Cirencester. He stated that at different seasons of the year no less than three species of Agaricus appeared on the same ring. The species of grasses also that composed the ring were found by the author to be constantly the same in the inner and outer parts of the circle in the rings which he examined. The Cirencester species of fungi in the rings were edible, and much sought after by the students of the college.

The PRINCE OF CANINO stated, in reference to a remark of the author, that the English *Agaricus campestris* was not sold in the markets of Rome,—that this fungus so closely resembled one that was extremely poisonous, that it was thought better to get rid of them altogether than to run the hazard of confounding the one with the other.

The PRINCE OF CANINO made a few remarks on the characters which distinguished the little Blue Magpie of Spain (*Pica Cookii*) from that of Siberia (*Pica cyanea*, Pallas). He also stated that the new

Caprimulgus of Hungary belonged to the genus Cordylis.

\* On the Genera of British Patellaceæ,' by Prof. E. FORBES.—The great similarity existing between patelliform shells, the animals of which are so different that they cannot be included in the same genus, has long been known to naturalists, and is one of those apparent anomalies which have been laid stress upon as sources of uncertainty in palaeontological inductions: without however very good reasons, for the remains of the molluscs in question are rarely found fossil, and the great majority of fossils of that class of animals are such as can be confidently depended on. In the course of the researches undertaken by the author and Mr. Hanley for their joint work on the 'History of British Mollusca,' a fresh inquiry was required to be made into the propriety with which the British Patellaceæ had been assigned to known genera. It resulted, that among our species we had two forms for which it becomes necessary to construct new generic types—viz., the so-called *Iothia fulva* and *Iothia ancyloides*. Neither of these belong to *Acmaea* with which *Iothia* is synonymous, but differs essentially in characters of head, mantle, dentition,—and in the latter case, position of body with respect to shell. As no established genus can receive them, for the former a new genus, *Pilidium*, is proposed, to which *Patella caca* of the 'Zoologia Danica' also belongs; and for the latter a new genus, *Propilidium*.

\* On *Beroë cucumis*, and the genera and species of Ciliograda which have been founded upon it,' by Prof. E. FORBES.—At the Birmingham Meeting of 1839 the author, in conjunction with Prof. Goodsir, communicated an account of the British Ciliograda *Medusa*. They then announced the existence in our seas of the true *Beroë cucumis* of Otto Fabricius, which they had taken on the coasts of Zetland. Since that time Prof. E. Forbes has availed himself of many opportunities for the observation of these animals, and has been successful in discovering some new features in their economy. He has taken the *Beroë cucumis* in many parts of the coasts of England and Scotland, from the Zetland Isles to the Isle of Wight, and has not been able to find any sufficient differences among the individuals to warrant the recognition of more than one species. They vary greatly in size and colour; in the Hebrides they are not unfrequently taken three inches in length, but are usually very much smaller on the English shores. He has found that apparently at certain seasons numerous individuals of this *Beroë* produce in the line of their ciliary ribs or from the belts of motor tissue at the base of the cilia, ovate egg-like pedunculated bodies of a bright orange colour. These can also be produced from the finer ciliary circles of the mouth and of the dorsal extremity. When the animal is in this state any irritation near the ciliary ribs causes it to contract the neighbouring portion of the body over them, so as to protect them, sheathing the eggs as it were in deep membranous canals. Particular attention is directed to these gemmules or egg-like bodies, which may prove to be intermediate states of the *Beroë*. When the animal is in egg it is extremely irritable, and when irritated gives out the most brilliant vivid green phosphorescent light, always from the vessels beneath the ciliary ribs and from no other part. The badness of the majority of delineations of this animal, and a misconception of its true structure, have caused numerous false species and several genera to be constructed out of one.

Prof. MILNE-EDWARDS said that many of Prof. Forbes's observations in these two papers were quite new. He was not aware that the mode of gemmation described as *Beroë cucumis* had ever been before noticed.

Prof. E. FORBES laid upon the table several papers containing observations made by the Dredging Committee. He hoped that the Committee would soon be able to present to the Section some general facts as the result of the investigations which had now been going on for so many years.

Mr. R. BALL exhibited a new dredge which he had recently constructed for natural history purposes. \* On the Anatomy of Lucernaria, with the Characters of a Species new to the British Coasts,' by Prof. OWEN.—The author gave a detailed account of the anatomy of Lucernaria, and described a new species which he had found on the coast at Dover.



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'On the Course of the Blood in the Circulation of the Human Fetus in the Normal Development, compared with the Acardian, Reptilian and Ichthian Circulation,' by Dr. MACDONALD.

'On the External Antennæ of the Crustacean and Entomostracoid Class, and their Anatomical Relation and Function, showing their Connexion with the Olfactory instead of the Auditory Apparatus, and the Hemology in the Vertebrate Class,' by Dr. MACDONALD.

The reading of the first of these papers led to a discussion on the nature of the powers concerned in the moving of the blood.

'If Vitality be a Force having Correlations with the Forces, Chemical Affinities, Motion, Heat, Light, Electricity, Magnetism, Gravity, so ably shown by Prof. Grove to be modifications of one and the same force,' by Dr. FOWLER.—The author, after having shown that each of these modified forces can be excited by any other, or in its turn be the exciter of all the rest, and, consequently, the antecedent or consequent indifferently of each of the others, proceeded to show that this is equally true of vitality, and that the coils in which these forces are latent, and by whose modification in an excited state they are rendered apparent to our senses, constitute one of the differences between them.

A vote of thanks having been given to the Chairman, the Section separated.

The following name has been added to the list of the Committee.

Dr. Royle, F.R.S.

#### Sub-Section.—ETHNOLOGY.

'On some remarkable Primitive Monuments existing at or near Carnac, (Brittany); and on the Discrimination of Races by their local and fixed Monuments,' by Dr. BLAIR.—Dr. Blair described a visit made in 1834, with Mr. F. Ronalds, to the bourg of Carnac, in the department of the Morbihan, the territory of the ancient Veneti,—on the south coast of Brittany,—for the sake of examining certain very remarkable monuments of the kind usually held for druidical, but of peculiar character and unusual dimensions; and hitherto but slightly known in this country. He mentioned the surprising richness, in these remains, of the small district hardly six miles east and west from Carnac, which they explored. Upwards of seventy notable objects, had been described by them, and the more important designed. They were of the usual classes: pillars, dolmens or cromlechs, tumuli, circles, &c. A stone of sacrifice was mentioned, hollowed for receiving the back and shoulders of the supine human victim; an obelisk, now fallen and broken, measuring sixty-four feet in length and computed to weigh upwards of 300 tons;—and the Mont St. Michel, a large tumulus surmounting a natural hill, having on it a chapel dedicated to Saint Michael, whence its pristine design and use as a temple was inferred. The chief objects of interest, however, were five instances of an arrangement, hitherto not elsewhere found. Nine, eleven, thirteen parallel rows, or lines, of pitched stones, varying from a huge to an almost diminutive size, form so many *parallelitha*, traversing and featuring the country. The lengths, too, are various. One springing near the bourg of Erdeven, extends a mile and three furlongs. Adjoining the heads of the parallelitha, are inclosures, viewed as temples, to which these long avenues led. Three of these sets of lines lie consecutively and suggest the impression that they were continuous. The remaining two lie apart from them, and from each other. If, as Mr. Deane, who preceded these travellers on the same ground, conjectures, the intervening spaces were once occupied by similar series, connecting the five into one enormous *Dracontium*, or temple of serpent-worship, imitating the windings of the deified reptile, the whole monument must have been the most stupendous of its kind in the world. To this were compared certain Scandinavian monuments, having the same character of fields of stones: differing herein, that the stones are disposed for the marking out of promiscuous graves; some being set, to express the figure of a boat. The Swedish antiquaries account them battle-fields, turned into the cemeteries of the slain: the boat indicating where some illustrious sea-hero or sea-king lies. Attention was invited to this agreement between the monuments of the old Scandinavians and

their historically-known spirit and manners: whilst the religious monuments of the Bretons express, if aright understood by us, that domination of the great druidical hierarchy, which stands out as the most conspicuous feature in the social constitution of old Gaul. Subordinate discriminations of the same tendency were pointed out in Scandinavian circles, considered as Courts of Law, analogously to the legal and litigious temper of the old Norsemen at home: whilst the sacerdotal character of the Celtic remains re-appears, in the Logan or Rocking stones, spread over the Celtic—unknown seemingly on the Germanic—soil and taken for ministrant for oracular purposes. The importance of thus identifying the characters and monuments of nations, was urged in an ethnological view. The extraordinary remains at Carnac invite alike the scientific and the traveller for mere pleasure.

'On certain American, Celtic, Cimbric, Roman, and Ancient British Skulls,' by Prof. RETZIUS.—This paper consisted in the application of the theory of Arndt, Raak and others, as to the general diffusion of a race akin to the Finns over the whole of Europe anterior to the immigration of the Indo-European tribes. The Celt, generally considered as the earliest inhabitant of the British Isles, has a skull remarkable for its diameter from front to back. Such, also, are the skulls found in barrows of secondary antiquity. In the most ancient, however, the skull has its chief development from side to side; the conformation of the aboriginal nations hypothetically allied to the Finn and Laplander.

'On the Gha Nation of the Gold Coast of Africa,' by the Rev. J. HANSON.—Herein were given in detail numerous practices and ceremonies closely resembling those of the Jews. It was considered that they had not been borrowed from the Mohammedans, and that they were not arbitrary.

Mr. CRAWFORD was inclined to look upon them as such (*i. e.*, as arbitrary).—Dr. R. G. LATHAM believed that Jewish habits were, to a great extent, the rule rather than the exception throughout the African nations, and that they only appeared more prominent in the Ghas because they had been better described. He believed the transition from the Negro to the Syro-Arabian to be less than investigators were inclined to admit.

'On the Ethnology of New Caledonia,' by Mr. A. K. ISDISTER.—The tribes are referable to three divisions. Of these, the most important are the Tacullis (or Carriers), the best known of the Athabaskan races.

'On certain Additions to the Ethnographical Philology of Africa,' by Dr. R. G. LATHAM.

'On the Transition between the Tibetan and Indian Families in respect to Conformation,' by Dr. R. G. LATHAM.—Drawing attention to the researches of Mr. Hodgson (of Nepal) on the Kooch, Bodo, and Dhimal, also to those of Dr. Bird on certain affinities between monosyllabic and Tamalian languages. The Garo and Chepang tribes are the most important for the study of the transition.

'On the terms Goth and Getæ,' by Dr. R. G. LATHAM.—In objection to the doctrine lately defended by M. Grimm, that the Goths and Getæ were identical, Dr. Latham found no reason to believe that the Goths were so called until they reached the Getic country, and that the name arose then and there, not earlier or elsewhere. That just as the Germans of England called themselves North-humbrians and South-humbrians (the last portion of the name being taken from the country to which they came), so did the *Ostro-Goths* and the *Visi-Goths*. Reasons given for disbelieving the Guttones or Gothini to be Germanic.

The following names have been added to the list of the Committee.

Mr. E. Guest, F.R.S., Rev. W. Linwood, Mr. G. Munby, Mr. A. J. Ellis.

#### SECTION F.—STATISTICS.

'On the Discovery of Gold in California,' by Prof. HANCOCK.—Prof. Hancock proposed to investigate the following questions:—First, on what causes did it depend whether prices in the British dominions would be affected by this discovery?—secondly, How could we ascertain whether as a matter-of-fact our prices were affected by it?—and thirdly, If our prices were likely to be altered by it, how could we

guard against any extensive change in prices being produced? These questions were of immediate and practical importance, for the discovery of the abundant gold and silver mines in America in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries produced the most remarkable changes in prices at that period, so that the prices of all commodities were quadrupled in the short space of seventy years. Although this change did not begin to take place till twenty years after the discovery of Potosi, yet a similar change at the present day if the causes were in existence to produce it, must be expected to happen with much greater rapidity, as the facility of transit and the promptness with which labour and capital were applied to industrial undertakings would bring the produce of the American mines into the European market with much greater rapidity than in past centuries. It must also be recollected that there was not the slightest provision in the present or past arrangements of the British currency to prevent changes in prices being produced to any extent by the gold mines of California if their fertility were sufficient to effect such changes. In investigating the cause of changes in prices there were two classes of changes to be considered which were perfectly distinct from one another. Sometimes the prices of particular commodities varied without any corresponding variation in the prices of other commodities. At other times the prices of all commodities partook of simultaneous changes of the same proportion and in the same direction. Changes of the first class arose from causes affecting the value of the particular commodities in the prices of which they occurred. Changes of the second class were quite independent of the value of the commodities, and arose solely from changes in the value of the metal or other commodity that was used as money. The price of a commodity in any place meant its value estimated in the money of that place—or, in other words, the quantity of money that could ordinarily be there received in exchange for it; and this quantity might increase either from the commodity becoming more valuable or from the money becoming less valuable. As gold was the standard of value in England it followed at once that whatever cause affected the value of gold as a commodity would affect prices in Great Britain. So that it was only necessary to consider whether the discovery of gold in California would affect the value of gold as a commodity. But this depended entirely on the cost of production of gold there. The answer to the first question might be stated in a few words. The extent to which British prices could be affected by the discovery of gold in California depended on the difference between the cost of obtaining gold there and the cost at the least fertile mine now worked or which continued to be worked after the discovery. As to the second question, it was manifest that it could not be solved directly. No statistical investigation, however carefully pursued, could enable us to ascertain the cost of production in California. For there the prices of labour, of the use of capital and of raw materials of every kind, are in a state of most rapid fluctuation. It would also be extremely difficult to discover with that certainty which the importance of the question would require the least fertile mine. But there was fortunately an indirect method of discovering the effect of the Californian gold without sending statisticians to that perilous region; and this indirect method gave results far more certain than any that they could discover for us. Let the price of silver be observed in England where gold was the standard of value and the price of gold on the Continent where silver was the standard. If it were found that the price of silver was rising in England and the price of gold falling on the Continent, by the same amount, it might reasonably be inferred that the Californian discovery was affecting the value of gold. But this conclusion could be corrected and verified by a very simple method. Let there be a systematic set of observations of the prices of all the chief commodities in some place in England—say in London. Select from this list of observations the twelve commodities that were ordinarily most constant in value. Observe whether there was now any simultaneous change going on in the prices of these commodities. If they were found to be all increasing in value by the same amount at the same time, it might be inferred that



gold was changing in value. For it was highly improbable that twelve commodities ordinarily constant in value should all change in value to the same extent from causes peculiar to themselves. Should the result of these observations prove that prices had begun to be affected by the discovery, then it would be necessary to consider the third question—How can we guard against any extreme change in prices being produced? From the manner in which the subject was alluded to in conversation and noticed in the public prints it would seem that the community in general was ignorant of the frightful evils which arose when the standard of value either from natural causes or from the culpable neglect of government became variable to any serious extent. But those evils were plainly demonstrated by the results of a variable standard in the reigns of Henry the Eighth, James the First and James the Second. The remedy for these evils could be discovered in a very simple way from considering the reason why gold had been maintained as our standard of value. It had been so maintained because for two centuries it had been of all commodities the least variable in value, and therefore the best fitted to serve as the measure of the value of other commodities. Should it now from any cause become variable in value, the same reason that has impelled us hitherto to select it would lead us to take in its place as a standard the commodity which would then become least variable in value. This commodity would, he believed, be found to be silver. Silver was our standard of value for many centuries after the Conquest. It formed a mixed standard along with gold from 1717 till 1774. It was now used as a standard in France, Hamburg and many other European states, and also in the United States of America. There was no reason, therefore, why we should not, if necessary, adopt silver as our standard—and so entirely obviate any variation in prices being produced by the discovery of gold.

A discussion followed; in which Mr. Tooke, Mr. Porter and Col. Sykes took part.—Mr. Tooke whilst he praised the ability of the paper did not think that the standard of value should be changed even though gold became variable in value.—Mr. PORTER considered that the value of gold could not be ascertained by observing the prices of twelve commodities—and Col. SYKES thought there was no use talking about a standard of value as everything was regulated by demand and supply.

Statistical Account of the Labouring Population inhabiting the Buildings at St. Pancras, erected by the Metropolitan Society for the Improvement of the Dwellings of the Poor, by Col. SYKES.—After stating what had previously been done by the Statistical Society of London and the Statistical Section of the British Association by way of inquiry into the domestic arrangements of the poor, Col. Sykes said, it was scarcely possible the reports made, read as they were at public meetings and subsequently printed, should fail to attract the notice of some of the many benevolent and practical men in England. Sir R. Howard, Lord Morpeth, Lord Ebrington, Mr. T. F. Gibson, Lord Grosvenor, Lord C. Hamilton, Mr. J. W. Tottie, and others, soon associated themselves together for the purpose of forming a "Metropolitan Association for the Improvement of the Dwellings of the Poor." A Royal Charter was obtained on the 16th of October 1845 limiting the profits to 5l. per cent. In May 1848 the Directors report the completion of the building, and that of the 110 sets of rooms 103 were let; the number of applicants being 197—some of whom were refused from want of proper reference. Up to that time they had not had a single default in payment of the rent, and general satisfaction was expressed by the tenants with the extra comforts and accommodation afforded them. The balance sheet shows that the building had cost 13,252l. 17s. 11d. The last report is dated May 1849. It is the first occasion in which details of a year's occupation can be given, and they are satisfactory throughout. The directors say—"It affords your Directors great satisfaction to state that all the dwellings have been occupied, almost without interruption from the date of their completion, and several applicants have been and still are waiting for vacancies—59 families have continued tenants since their respective dwellings were ready for occupation in January, February, March, and April 1848. The

total number of tenants has been 173, several of whom having left their apartments have subsequently wished to return. Not only have the tenants expressed themselves pleased with the superior accommodation afforded to them, but have also proved by regularly paying their rents, and their general strict observance of such rules as your Directors have thought proper to lay down for the management of so large a building, that they are desirous of assisting them in preserving a high character for respectability in its occupants." This last trait mentioned by the Directors is of extended bearing and importance; it holds out a prospect that not only will such communities be advanced in their physical and social condition, but that a feeling will originate within themselves to maintain a certain moral standing, a certain pride of character, which will prevent individuals or their neighbours in this community from offending against a public sentiment. The total number of shares taken at the date of the Report was 1527. The Buildings up to that date had cost 17,251l. 5s. 3d. Col. Sykes proceeded to consider how far, in addition to certain physical and economical advantages, this association acts as an efficient auxiliary in the great efforts now making to improve the sanitary condition of towns. The best test, he says, for this would be the health of the population inhabiting the Buildings of the Association; and accordingly requested the Hon. Secretary, Mr. Gatiliff, to have drawn out for me a weekly return for one year of the inhabitants, showing the male and female heads of families, children, weekly changes of population, number of deaths and previous occupation, age, and disease. The weekly outgoings and incomings rendered it a somewhat complicated matter to determine accurately the per-centage of deaths, and I consulted my friend Mr. Neison. The Return shows that there has not occurred a single case of cholera although the fatal disease is all around the Buildings.

Having viewed this picture in detail, in which a population is represented as comfortably housed, with the proper accompaniments of ventilation, proper supply of water and cleanliness, let us turn to a state of things the contrast of this picture.—In December 1847, a Committee of the Statistical Society of London inspected the dwellings, room by room, and condition of the inhabitants of Church Lane, St. Giles's, London. On the 17th of January, 1848, their report was made to the Statistical Society.—Church Lane was 290 feet long, 20 feet wide, and contained 32 houses. The population examined was 463; the number of families 100, and the number of bedsteads amongst them 90. There was an average therefore of above 5 souls to a bed, and many rooms were inhabited by as many as 22 souls, without water, without drainage, and without privies. The whole condition of these people was so revolting, that the Committee concluded their Report in the following terms:—"Your Committee have thus given a picture in detail of human wretchedness, filth, and brutal degradation, the chief features of which are a disgrace to a civilized country, and which your Committee have reason to fear, from letters that have appeared in the public journals, is but the type of the miserable condition of masses of the community, whether located in the small, ill-ventilated rooms of manufacturing towns, or in many of the cottages of the agricultural peasantry. In these wretched dwellings all ages and both sexes, fathers and daughters, mothers and sons, grown up brothers and sisters, stranger-adult males and females, and swarms of children, the sick, the dying, and the dead, are herded together with a proximity and mutual pressure which brutes would resist; where it is physically impossible to preserve the ordinary decencies of life; where all sense of propriety and self-respect must be lost, to be replaced only by a recklessness of demeanour which necessarily results from vitiated minds; and yet with many of the young, brought up in such hot-beds of mental pestilence, the hopeless, but benevolent, attempt is making to implant, by means of general education the seeds of religion, virtue, truth, order, industry, and cleanliness; but which seeds, to fructify advantageously, need, it is to be feared, a soil far less rank than can be found in these wretched abodes." Such an evil condition of things could have but evil results, and the Registrar-General gives the following mortality from cholera in Church Lane:—

Week ending	11 August, deaths from cholera.	18	25	1 Sept.	8
	8	10	6	2	3
	None	None	None	None	None
	29	None	None	None	None

Thus while the miserable abodes in Church Lane teemed with death, and the consequent panic put to flight and dispersed the mass of the wretched inhabitants, there was not a single case of cholera amongst a larger population in the buildings belonging to the Metropolitan Society.

On a Comparative Statement of Prices and Wages during the years from 1842 to 1849, by Mr. G. R. PORTER.—The usefulness, not only to ourselves but to those who will come after us, of records such as I have now to bring forward a sample, will be apparent to every one who has at any time attempted to investigate the comparative condition at different periods of our working population. To begin with what is emphatically called "the staff of life,"—and the price of which is a thing of the very first importance to those who depend upon daily or weekly wages. The four-pound loaf of bread sold in the bakers' shops in London has been, in the month of July of each year from 1842 to 1849, as follows:—

1842.....	9d.	1846.....	8d.
1843.....	7d.	1847.....	11d.
1844.....	8d.	1848.....	7d.
1845.....	7d.	1849.....	7d.

When it is considered that from one-half to three-fourths of the expenditure of the most numerous class of the people is for this one article, it cannot be held of light importance that a saving of 25 per cent. is made in its cost. Such a saving to the family of a working man—consisting of himself, his wife, and four children—can hardly be less than 2s. per week,—which is too often a very considerable proportion of the man's earnings; so that it will greatly depend upon this head of expenditure whether or not he and his family are able to provide themselves with decent clothing and with other matters which, although perhaps not absolutely nor equally necessary to the support of life, are yet most important towards the comfort and contentment of the family.

The price of meat is, unfortunately, not a matter of such universal interest as the cost of bread; and it is to be feared that even in ordinarily prosperous times there are very many of our fellow-subjects who are forced to forego its use. But it must be obvious that the numbers thus subjected to privation will, as already explained, greatly depend upon the cost of bread,—while in large towns it will be found upon inquiry that few or none are, except in the very dearest times, deprived of the occasional or perhaps the habitual use of meat. The prices as quoted in the accounts of markets cannot be taken as the prices actually paid for their retail purchases by the families of working men; they will, however, afford accurate means for comparison, since no doubt the wholesale price of the carcass must give the retail price charged for its constituents. The following prices are those given for the primest beef (Scots) and South Down mutton at Smithfield in the month of June in each year, 1842 to 1849.—

	Beef.		Mutton.	
	4s. 8d.	4s. 3d.	4s. 3d.	4s. 3d.
1842 .. ..	3s. 10d.	3s. 10d.	3s. 10d.	3s. 10d.
1843 .. ..	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.
1844 .. ..	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.
1845 .. ..	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.
1846 .. ..	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.
1847 .. ..	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.
1848 .. ..	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.
1849 .. ..	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.	3s. 8d.

The prices paid for beef and mutton at St. Thomas's Hospital in the same years, at Lady-day and Michaelmas have been as follows:—

	Beef.		Mutton.	
	Lady-day.	Michaelmas.	Lady-day.	Michaelmas.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
1842	3 4	3 0	3 8	3 4
1843	2 8	3 0	3 0	3 4
1844	2 8	2 8	3 0	3 4
1845	2 8	3 4	3 4	4 0
1846	3 8	3 4	4 4	4 0
1847	3 8	3 10	4 4	4 0
1848	4 0	3 4	4 8	4 0
1849	3 0	..	3 8	..

The retail prices paid by the working classes for | direct of London, from 1844 to 1848, were as  
other articles of food and for groceries, in a populous | under.—

	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.
Tea .. .. per lb.	5s. to 7s.	5s. to 7s.	5s. to 7s.	4s. to 6s.	4s. to 6s.
Raw Sugar .. ..	7d. to 8d.	6d. to 7d.	6d. to 7d.	4d. to 5d.	4d. to 5d.
Refined Sugar .. ..	1s. 8d. to 2s. 6d.	1s. 8d. to 2s. 6d.	1s. 8d. to 2s. 6d.	1s. 4d. to 2s.	1s. 4d. to 2s.
Coffee .. ..	6d. to 8d.	6d. to 7d.	6d. to 7d.	6d. to 7d.	6d. to 7d.
Cocoa .. ..	2d. to 3d.	2d. to 3d.	2d. to 3d.	2d. to 3d.	2d. to 3d.
Rice .. ..	5d. to 7d.	5d. to 7d.	5d. to 7d.	5d. to 7d.	4d. to 6d.
Currents .. ..	5d. to 7d.	5d. to 7d.	5d. to 7d.	4d. to 6d.	4d. to 6d.
Raisins .. ..	10d.	10d.	10d.	10d.	9d.
Butter .. ..	9d.	9d.	9d.	9d.	9d.
Cheshire Cheese .. ..	8d.	8d.	8d.	8d.	8d.
Derby Cheese .. ..	6d.	6d.	6d.	6d.	6d.
Dutch Cheese .. ..	9d.	9d.	10d.	10d.	10d.
Lard .. ..	62s. to 68s.	63s. to 70s.	62s. to 68s.	73s. to 81s.	73s. to 81s.
Bacon .. ..	7s. 6d.	7s. 6d.	7s. 6d.	7s. 6d.	7s. 6d.
Eggs .. .. per cwt.	..	..	..	..	..

The retail prices of such articles of the qualities usually consumed by the working classes at Birmingham during the years from 1844 to June 1849 have

been procured for me by an inhabitant of this town.—

	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.	June 1849
Tea .. .. per lb.	5 s. d.	5 s. d.	5 s. d.	5 s. d.	5 s. d.	5 s. d.
Sugar, Raw .. ..	0 7	0 6	0 5	0 5	0 4	0 4
Sugar, Refined .. ..	0 9	0 9	0 8	0 7	0 6	0 6
Coffee .. ..	1 8	1 8	1 8	1 8	1 6	1 4
Cocoa .. ..	0 10	0 8	0 8	0 8	0 8	0 7
Rice, Patna .. ..	0 3	0 3	0 3	0 4	0 3	0 2
Outmeal .. ..	0 3	0 3	0 3	0 3	0 3	0 3
Currents .. ..	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 7	0 6	0 6
Raisins .. ..	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 5	0 5
Butter .. ..	0 10	0 11	0 10	1 0	1 0	0 10
Eggs, Number of, for 1s. ..	20	20	20	20	20	24

In the course of inquiries made among London tradesmen while collecting the foregoing lists of prices, it was stated that as respects cheese, the working classes seldom or never buy it by weight, but apply at the shop for sixpennyworth or three-pennyworth or whatever may be the sum to be laid out, the dearness or cheapness of the article affecting the quantity that they receive for their money. Another fact of the same nature was ascertained from the proprietor of a very large establishment for the sale of linens, woollens, haberdashery, and the like goods. The working man or woman is accustomed to pay certain prices for certain articles, and does not vary the outlay with the varying markets—but buys a 3s. or 5s. hat or bonnet, a shirt or shift for so much, and so on through the whole list of articles of clothing. The benefit of cheapness reaches them in the quality of their purchases; and as the tendency has for very many years been towards lessened prices, we now see—such at least is the case in London—that the working classes are better clad than formerly, keeping in this respect their relative position with the more easy classes, whose dress—especially among ladies—is generally not only better in quality but actually more costly than when the articles used were of much higher prices than now. When engaged upon an inquiry similar to the present—fifteen years ago—I was informed by a person who gave constant employment to 1,200 people, men and women, in making up articles of clothing used by the working classes, that taking one article with another, the materials used then cost not more

than one-half what they had cost at the close of the war in 1815; and we know that, since 1834, there has been a further and very great abatement in the cost of most if not all such materials. Strong cotton cloths, the wholesale price of which in 1810 was 10d. per yard, sold in 1820 for 9d., had fallen in 1833 to 4d., and may now be bought at 2d. to 2½d. per yard. Printed calico, which sold in 1810 at 2s. 2d., in 1820 at 1s. 4d., in 1830, the excise duty having been removed, at 6d. to 8d., may now be bought at from 3s. 6d. to 6s. per piece of 28½ yards, or from 1½d. to 3½d. per yard. The increased use of cotton in this country, so far beyond the increase in our export of cotton goods, proves that the people, and especially the working people, who are the great consumers of cotton goods among us, have fully profited by their progressive cheapening. The consumption of such articles as are of home production we have no satisfactory means of determining; but we may feel quite certain that as respects such of them as are articles of necessity, as well as those which have become so through the usages of society, a fall in price when unaccompanied by circumstances that oppress the people must be accompanied by an increase in their use. If we had any doubts upon this head they must, however, be dispelled when we find that other articles of which, being brought from distant countries, we know the quantities used, are so used in greatly increased quantities. The consumption in each year from 1842 to 1848 of such of the articles of which retail prices have been given as are imported have been.—

	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.
Sugar .. .. cwt.	3,868,466	4,028,307	4,129,443	4,056,604	5,220,248	5,779,508	6,208,672
Tea .. .. lb.	37,335,911	40,293,393	41,363,770	44,193,433	46,740,344	46,314,821	48,735,971
Coffee .. ..	26,519,646	29,979,404	31,352,382	34,293,190	36,754,578	37,441,372	37,106,292
Cocoa .. ..	2,246,569	2,547,934	2,589,977	2,579,497	2,951,206	3,079,198	2,935,479
Rice .. .. cwt.	396,922	315,359	432,480	372,574	545,883	971,694	925,731
Currents .. ..	196,379	254,330	294,694	309,485	358,761	331,236	300,560
Raisins .. ..	186,240	236,626	292,230	204,967	236,255	215,024	228,542

It appears thus, that a reduction in the retail price of sugar from 7d. to 4½d. for raw and from 9d. to 6d. for refined sugar, has increased the consumption, since 1844, by 2,079,429 cwt. or 50 per cent. The reduction of 1s. per pound on tea, viz. from 5s. to 4s., has caused an additional consumption of 7,372,201 pounds or 18 per cent. The retail price of coffee has fallen from 1s. 8d. to 1s. 4d., and the consumption has been augmented by 5,753,910 pounds, or 18 per cent.; thus adding very materially to the comforts of the working classes, and chiefly the artisan class, among whom the increased quantities here noticed have principally been used. From what has been already stated, we might almost necessarily infer that the people generally are in a condition of comparative comfort.

'On the Fluctuations of the Annual Supply and average Price of Corn, in France, during the last seventy years, with particular reference to the four periods ending in 1792, 1814, 1830, and 1848,' by Mr. DANSON.—It appeared from official sources that there are few of the departments of France in which the average consumption of grain of all kinds per head, per annum, falls short of an imperial quarter—that considerably more than half (by measure) of all the grain food thus consumed consists of wheat; and that though the use of wheat as a large proportion of the food of the people is confined to particular localities, these localities are so distributed that whatever changes materially affect them may be safely assumed to affect, more or less, the whole country. Hence it was inferred, in the first instance, that the official

average prices of wheat might be safely accepted, in France as in England, as indicating the current price of food. The first period of sixteen years, (1778-93) was distinguished from every subsequent period of similar length, and from most of those preceding, by the low average range and also by the uniformity of its prices. The ten years' average of 1766-75 was 18s. 66c. per hectolitre. From 1778 to 1787 it was only 14s. 33c. In any subsequent period of ten years the average had been very little over or under 20s. The average of the six years 1788-93, was 21s. 81c.; and during this period the most distressing fluctuations occurred: the average price of 1789 being more than fifty per cent. above that of 1787, and the price of 1793 (35s.) being more than a hundred per cent. above that of 1791. Thus ten years of low prices were followed by six of high prices; and these closed the period. The second period embraced the prices of eighteen years (1797-1814). From 1797 to 1802 prices were generally high in France, as they were throughout Europe. But in the eight years 1803-10 prices were constantly low in France, giving a general average of only 18s. 60c.; and in each of these years, but especially the last seven, grain was more or less largely exported.

The averages here stated are, as usual, those of the astronomical, not of the agricultural year. They may therefore be taken to indicate the market value of about two-thirds of one crop and one-third of the next. So the first of the seven good years is to be referred to the harvest of 1803—of that summer during which Bonaparte formed the camp at Boulogne, and prepared his election to the Imperial throne in the following spring. The last ended with the gathering of the deficient harvest of 1810—the year in which the events of the Peninsular war began to run decidedly against France, and in which Napoleon determined upon urging his final and fatal dispute with Russia.

The common average of the three years 1811-12-13 was 27s. 66c.: an advance of more than fifty per cent. upon the average of the preceding eight years; and the whole rise of price, from 1809 to 1812 was from 15s. to 34s. per hectolitre. The harvest of 1813 was good; and after it was gathered prices fell; but this period was closed virtually by the battle of Leipzig in October, and formally by the abdication of the following April. The third period embraces the sixteen years from 1815 to 1830. It has a striking resemblance to the one preceding. The years 1816-17-18 were years of general scarcity, like those of 1800-1801-1802. Then, also, there was a middle period of plenty, marked by the nine years, 1816-27, of moderate or low prices. The lowest prices, as before, were in the last years of this time of plenty; and they were succeeded by the scarcity and high prices of 1828-9-30. The price of bread in Paris was actually higher in 1829 than at any time in 1816-17 or -18, or at any time since 1800. During the fourth period (the seventeen years from 1831 to 1847 inclusive) were nearly repeated the features which had distinguished the three preceding. At its commencement were two years of high prices. Then followed thirteen years (1833-45), during which the general average of 20s. was only once materially exceeded, when, in 1839, the annual average rose to 22s. 49c. The common average of this period was 18s. 43c. But the period ended precisely as its predecessors had ended: with two years of prices which, notwithstanding the use of foreign supplies more than twice as large as had ever been imported in a similar period, were unusually high. Mr. Danson then went over the same ground again with another test—that afforded by a statement, from the Customs account, of the quantity of grain and flour of every description actually exported (of French produce), or exported and taken into consumption (of foreign produce), in each year; and exhibited, by tables and diagrams a remarkable coincidence of the results obtained by the two methods. And finally, applying both tests conjointly to the period of ten years, 1838-47, he showed the probable value of the excesses of exports and imports respectively, as indicating the addition to, or drawn upon, the national resources consequent upon the annual superabundance or deficiency of the home supply. The estimated value of the excess of imports in 1847 exceeded 320,000,000 £; and they were sufficient, according to the best authorities, to feed the whole

population with grain food for forty-five days. In conclusion, two inferences were suggested: 1. That the political dates, 1792, 1814, 1830, and 1848, are also the *natural* divisions of a history of the French Corn Market since 1778; and 2. That the history of prices (especially as it regards the food of the people) might, in the order of practical importance to mankind, take precedence of the history of politics.

The following names have been added to the list of the Committee.

Messrs. M. M. Phillips and J. T. Danson.

#### SECTION G.—MECHANICAL SCIENCE.

'On an Oil Test,' by Mr. NASMYTH.  
'On the Correct Sizing of Toothed Wheels and Pinions,' by Mr. ROBERTS.

'On the Copying Telegraph and other Recent Improvements in Telegraphic Communication,' by Mr. BAKEWELL.—This appears to be a modification of Morse's instrument. Very complicated chemical actions ensue when the electric current passes from a steel point through paper saturated with such a solution, the result of which is to leave a stain of Prussian blue on the paper. It may be means of Mr. Bakewell's method be drawn under the steel point attached to the instrument without producing any mark when no electric current is passing, but when it forms part of a voltaic current the paper will be instantly marked blue. By this arrangement copies of writing may be made at any distance to which an electric current can be conveyed, provided the two instruments are moving exactly together. One of the alleged advantages of this telegraph as compared with needle telegraphs was, that it would be free from the perturbing influence of atmospheric electricity. By this invention independent connexions with different stations and with branch lines may be obtained.

'On Hosman's Patent Cistern as a Sanitary Machine,' by Mr. W. WOOD.—The cistern is so contrived that it may be caused, by a self-acting valve, to discharge a periodical flow of water through the drains of the house, which, combining with a similar simultaneous discharge from the other houses, would sweep the sewers clear every three or four days or more, as may be found desirable.

It was observed by Sir W. SNOW HARRIS, in the discussion which followed, that the best action for effecting the purpose was, in fact, a complete imitation of what Nature effects by a deluge of rain,—and that such a thorough cleansing of sewers once or twice a week, operating directly upon the drains of each house, is a sanitary process of the highest possible public value and ought not to be overlooked. No ordinary sluicing by reservoirs could possibly attain the perfect sanitary result to be derived from a general use of such an apparatus if constructed; and which upon public grounds should be caused to be applied to all houses, provision being made for a regular supply of water,—which would certainly be effected eventually.

'On a Plan for Ventilating Coal Mines,' by Mr. NICHOLSON.

'On the Strength and Elasticity of Stone and Timber,' by Prof. HODGKINSON.—This was the result of a series of careful experiments on the power of stone, timber, and iron, to resist pressure and tension. The results arrived at with respect to iron are,—that it is not elastic,—that if once it becomes deflected it does not regain its original position. For all practical purposes this fact is perhaps of inconsiderable interest, but philosophically none of the substances named are elastic.

A discussion ensued, in which the PRESIDENT, Mr. WEBSTER, and others took part. The former gentleman remarked that he conceived the fact was, that the particles of cast iron, in a mass of metal, when pressure was applied, lost their equilibrium by their friction upon themselves. When the pressure was removed they never regained their equilibrium, as the shape and relation of the granulated particles composing the metal were changed. There was this consolation, however, for railway engineers, and others making iron bridges, that if a girder or bridge composed of cast metal be deflected by a great pressure, no succeeding pressure, if it is less, ever increases that deflection. Consequently,

for all practical purposes, the absence of elasticity, or the tendency in iron always to be breaking, was of comparatively little consequence.

The following names have been added to the list of the Committee.

Rev. Prof. Willis, F.R.S., Sir E. Belcher, R.N. Mr. J. C. Birkenshaw, Mr. E. Humphreys, Mr. Peter Clare.

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